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A MODEL OF ROLES AND ATTRIBUTIONS IN SEXUAL INTERACTIONS

by

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Department of Psychology
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Date: _____

Approved:

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Susan Roth, Supervisor

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Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Psychology in the Graduate School of Duke University

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ABSTRACT

(Psychology-Clinical)

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Accumulating evidence suggests that men tend to enact the active role (i. e., initiator and leader), while women tend to enact the passive and limit-setting role (i. e., rejector and follower) in sexual interactions. Furthermore, the men's sexual behaviors are typically attributed to their greater sexual needs, while the women's are usually attributed to their greater emotional needs and moods. Although these sex differences in sexual behavior and motivation have often been accepted as fundamental and basically biological characteristics of men and women, a theoretical model of dyadic sexual interactions is developed which proposes an interrelated set of psychosocial determinants of these sex differences. This model of perceived role enactment and motivational attributions is offered in an attempt to integrate and redirect theory and research in the areas of sex differences in sexuality, sex roles, interpersonal perception, and attribution theory.

Specifically, it is hypothesized that both the perceiver's beliefs concerning which sexual behaviors under what circumstances are considered socially appropriate for members of each sex (i.e., normative expectancies) and his/her values (i.e., personal preferences) mediate the effect of the target's sex on perceived sexual role enactment. These beliefs are also hypothesized to mediate the effect of the target's sex on the perceiver's values. Target-based expectancies, derived from perceived role enactment, are then hypothesized to mediate the influence of beliefs (and the target's sex) on the motivational attributions made for the target's behavior, following a proposed set of attributional principles. However, the less that is known about the target's past role enactment, the more normative expectancies are assumed to be involved directly in the determination of attributions, following the same principles. In addition, values are hypothesized to influence motivational attributions, both directly and indirectly. Finally, the perspective of the perceiver (i.e., actor or participant-observer) is hypothesized to directly influence values, thereby indirectly producing attributional conflicts between partners.

In order to measure a couple's status on these variables, the Sexual Role Interaction Inventory (SRII) has been developed. The SRII is a "dual perspective" clinical and research instrument for the assessment of a couple's sexual interactions along the dimensions of sexual role behaviors and correspondent beliefs, values, attributions, and satisfactions.

In a preliminary test of the model, 113 young married couples completed the SRII. Path analyses are performed on this data applying the model both to the active sexual role (sexual initiation) and to the limit-setting role (sexual rejection).

The results of these analyses generally confirm the utility and tenability of the proposed model, though a few modifications in the explicit causal pathways and specific hypotheses are suggested. First, beliefs appear to mediate only part of the powerful influence of sex on perceived role enactment. Therefore, biological factors are not ruled out as important determinants of sexual role and attribution differentiation between men and women. Second, these beliefs are found to systematically influence attributions in addition to perceived role enactment, thereby producing stereotyped attributions for both partners. Furthermore, value conflicts between partners are seen to exacerbate these stereotyped perceptions for participant-observers, thereby producing attributional conflicts as well. Finally, the negative value of sexual rejection appears to make motivational factors, particularly self-esteem maintenance mechanisms, more important than cognitive factors in attribution formation for limit-setting role enactment.

Several implications of the model and findings from this study are discussed. In particular, it is concluded that traditional sexual roles are likely to have a maladaptive influence in couples leading to both sexual and emotional dissatisfaction. The relevance of the model for a more

general theory of behavioral enactment, perception, and interpretation is also discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

Considerable attention and emotional exchange have been directed toward the existence and nature of sex differences in sexuality throughout history. Only recently, however, have there been any real attempts to empirically examine what actually goes on between males and females in the traditionally hidden realm of sexual interactions. Nevertheless, it is behind those closed doors that we learn some very important information about ourselves and our sexual partners. In light of the extremely limited knowledge about these intimate interactions, it is important for investigators to attempt to understand not only what actually happens in sexual interactions, but how meanings are inferred from these behaviors as well.

Therefore, this paper has two interrelated foci: (a) the nature and determinants of differential behaviors or roles enacted by males and females in ongoing heterosexual interactions; and (b) how these sexual behaviors are interpreted by them to infer motivations concerning the actor and his/her partner, that is, the meanings of these sexual acts. As will be seen below, sexuality research has focused primarily on the nature

of sex differences in sexual behaviors and has ignored the issue of their determinants. Furthermore, almost no investigators have studied the psychologically more important issue, that is, the interpretation processes in sexual interactions. A large part of this problem has been the near absence of theoretical considerations in this area of sexuality research. This criticism of the field has been developed elsewhere (Crain, 1976; Crain & Roth, 1977) and will not be detailed here.

The importance of understanding the nature and determinants of the meanings of behaviors to the partners in sexual interactions is well-illustrated by the major findings reported in two recent books describing independent large-scale sexuality surveys of women (Hite, 1976) and men (Pietropinto & Simenauer, 1977). An examination of these books reveals a considerable amount of attention by the authors on attacks made by their respondents upon the opposite sex. Specifically, women in the Hite sample generally complained that men are too insensitive to women's sexual and emotional needs, that men only consider their own sexual needs, and that men do not really want women to be sexually active. On the other hand, men in the Pietropinto-Simenauer sample generally complained that women are too passive sexually and insisted that they (the men) want sincerity, affection, and companionship above all else. These findings are intriguing and certainly illustrate how emotionally laden this topic is to many individuals in our society. Unfortunately, descriptive surveys such as these make it impossible to sort out the myriad of sex differences in sexual

behaviors, values, beliefs, and interpretation processes, let alone understand the nature of, and relationships among, these differences. In addition, the emphasis on studies of individuals rather than couples in this area make meaningful comparisons between male and female reports almost impossible and therefore radically limits our understanding of their sexual interactions.

As will be seen below in this paper, there have been a few recent attempts to empirically examine sex differences in sexual behavior and experience in a systematic and theoretically and methodologically useful way (e.g., Allgeier & Fogel, 1978; Crain & Roth, 1977; Fisher & Byrne, 1978; McCormick, 1977; Peplau, Rubin, & Hill, 1977). However, there is currently no conceptual model to integrate the empirical findings which are available into a meaningful framework. In addition, although there have been several recommendations during the past year to integrate current social psychological theories, such as role and attribution theories, with sexuality research (Byrne, 1977; Crain & Roth, 1977; Peplau & Hammer, 1977), there has been very little use of these highly relevant theoretical formulations toward an understanding of sexual interactions. Therefore, as an initial attempt to redirect theory and research on sex differences in sexual interactions into a potentially more fruitful direction, this paper has several tasks. First, a model of theoretically interrelated psychological and sociocultural determinants of sex differences in both the enactment of sexual behaviors and the motivations attributed to them

in ongoing dyadic interactions will be developed to serve both as an integrative conceptual framework and as a stimulus for systematic research. Concurrently, relevant theoretical perspectives and empirical research in the areas of sex differences in sexuality, sex roles, and attribution theory will be examined with a focus upon how they relate to the proposed model and how propositions derived from each perspective can be evaluated using the model. Finally, an empirical study will be described which examines the general utility of the proposed model and tests several hypotheses derived from the relevant theoretical formulations and empirical findings.

Development of the Model

Sexual Role Enactment

Sex Differences in Sexual Behavior

The existence of sex differences in premarital sexual behavior has been well-documented, although these differences may have decreased somewhat during the so-called "sexual revolution." In general, men have been found to be more sexually experienced, to have engaged in a wider variety of sexual behaviors, and to be more aggressive in sexual interactions than women (Bauman & Wilson, 1974; Bell & Chaskes, 1970; Hopkins, 1977; Kanin, 1957; Lewis & Burr, 1975). Furthermore, women appear to be far less likely to initiate sexual intercourse within premarital relationships, more likely to set limits on the couple's sexual behaviors,

and more likely to limit their premarital sex to one partner (Butterfield & Crain, 1978; Christensen & Gregg, 1972; Ehrmann, 1959; Peplau, Rubin, & Hill, 1977; Robinson, King, & Balswick, 1972). Although less research has explored sex differences in marital sexual interactions, there is anecdotal and systematic evidence to suggest that they continue to exist after the wedding vows. Specifically, husbands still appear to be far more likely to initiate sex in their marital relationships, to take a dominant position during sexual intercourse, and to engage in more extra-marital sexual relations than wives (Burgess & Wallin, 1953; Crain & Roth, 1977; Hunt, 1974; Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin, & Gebhard, 1953). Although attitudes about these sex-typed behaviors may be changing (Komarovsky, 1976), the recency of some of the sources cited above suggest that these behavior patterns have been relatively stable.

These findings have most often been interpreted by assuming that an individual's sexual behaviors are directly determined as a function of his/her biological sex. In other words, they are assumed to result from genetically programmed differences in male and female sexuality (Socarides, 1977). Thus, men are assumed to have considerably stronger, more biologically determined sexual needs than women and are therefore driven to act in a more sexually assertive and active way (Bardwick, 1970, 1971; Kaats & Davis, 1972). This "biological" model of sexual behavior is represented in Figure 1.

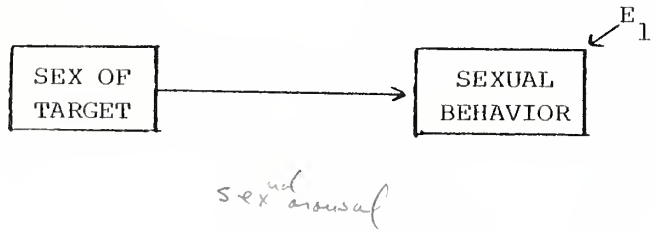


Figure 1. The "biological" model of sex differences in sexual behavior. The unaccounted for determinants of sexual behavior are symbolized by E_1.

Sex Roles in Sexual Interactions

A consideration of psychosocial factors, however, suggests an alternative to this rigidly deterministic ("anatomy is destiny") model. A number of sociological studies have documented the existence of a "double standard" regarding which sexual behaviors under what circumstances are considered socially appropriate for, or generally expected of, members of each sex (Reiss, 1956, 1967). Sexual intercourse and masturbation have been found to be more socially acceptable for unmarried males than females (Hunt, 1974; Kaats & Davis, 1970). In addition, unmarried men are expected to initiate sex, while unmarried women are expected to set limits on the couple's sexual intimacy (Gagnon & Simon, 1973; McCormick, 1977; Safilios-Rothschild, 1977). Even within marital relationships, sexual initiation has been found to be more expected of husbands, whereas avoidance of sex is more expected of wives (Crain & Roth, 1977). Merely the existence of such social constraints and expectancies implies an underlying premise that people would act differently without them. Moreover, recent experimental studies on the psychological and physiological arousal responses following direct exposure to erotic stimuli have, in general, found no significant sex differences (Byrne & Lamberth, 1971; Fisher & Byrne, 1978; Schmidt, 1975). The similarity in sexual arousal patterns as well as the existence of differential behavioral expectancies strongly suggests that sex differences in sexual behavior should be conceptualized as sex roles in sexual interactions or, in other words, as male

and female sexual roles.

Sex roles, that is, the differential expectancies placed upon males and females, have been the subject of considerable theoretical and experimental investigation (for literature reviews, see Angrist, 1969; Astin, Parelman, & Fisher, 1975). The application of sex role theory to sexual interactions is an important alternative to the deterministic model of sex differences depicted in Figure 1. In fact, this perspective has been suggested by several investigators in the field (Crain & Roth, 1977; Dixon, 1976; Lipman-Blumen & Tichamyer, 1975). For instance, Lipman-Blumen and Tichamyer (1975) included in their recommendations for future research in sex roles that:

> The mapping of sex role onto sexual behavior and vice versa seems such a logical step that it is difficult to believe how rarely it is done. Sexologists tend to study sexual behavior in a vacuum that precludes their understanding of sexual behavior changes. (p. 322)

This latter point is particularly important since it is apparent that, although sex differences in sexual behaviors generally exist, at least within our culture, they may be decreasing over time (Bell & Chaskes, 1970).

By conceptualizing sex differences in sexual behavior as sexual roles, that is, as sexual behavior repertoires which an individual is expected to enact as a function of his/her sex, several important modifications in the proposed model become necessary. First, the effect of a target's sex on sexual behavior is hypothesized to be mediated by these

learned psychosocial beliefs, that is, by an awareness of sex-based normative expectancies. Second, there is an accompanying change in focus from discrete sexual behaviors (e.g., sexual intercourse, fallatio, cunnilingus) to male and female sexual roles or behavioral repertoires (e.g., active vs. passive, initiator vs. limit setter) which are differentially expected of, and generally enacted by, men and women. Specifically, it is proposed that males are generally expected to enact a more active (i.e., more initiating and directive) sexual role orientation, while females are generally expected to enact a more passive (i.e., more limit-setting and response-oriented) sexual role position. These sexual roles are then enacted, in part, directly as a function of an individual's beliefs about normative expectancies and only indirectly as a function of sex. The addition of this sexual role formulation to the model is represented in Figure 2.

Influence of Personal Values

The model of sexual interactions depicted in Figure 2 assumes, however, that an individual's sexual role enactment is determined primarily by his/her sex either directly or as a function of his/her knowledge of what is normatively expected of him/her. It is obvious that people do not always do what is expected of them and that actual roles in sexual interactions are not always entirely consistent with biological sex. Therefore, it is important to consider other determinants of sexual role

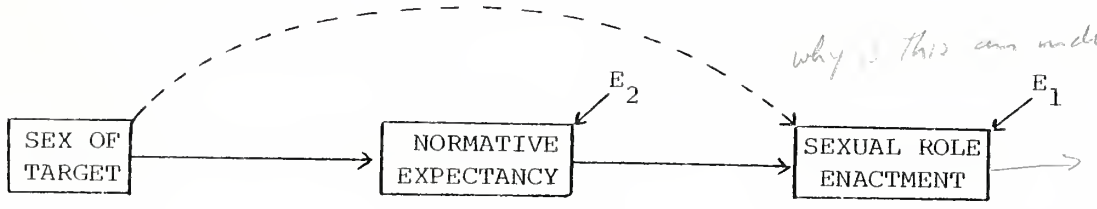
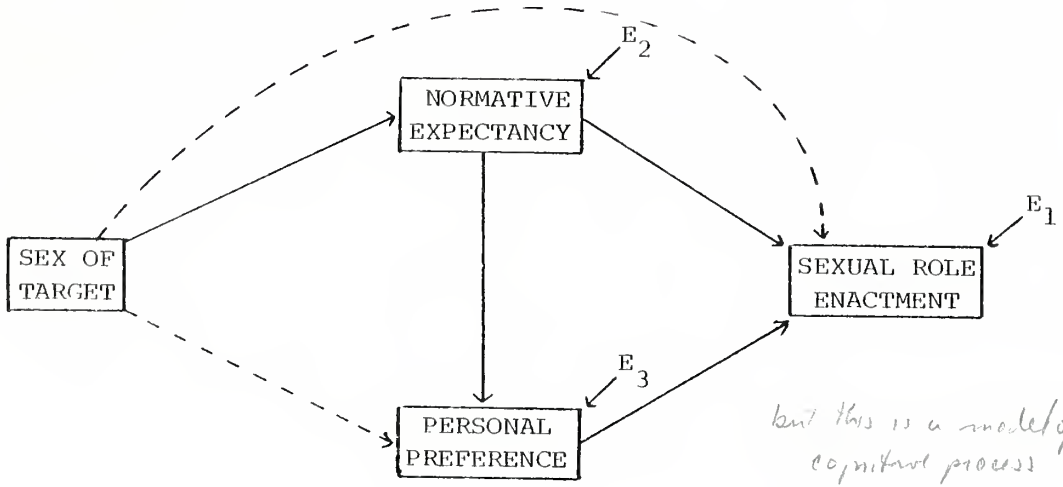


Figure 2. A "psychosocial" model of sexual role enactment. The unaccounted for determinants of normative expectancy are symbolized by E_2. In addition, direct paths are represented by solid arrows and indirect paths are represented by broken arrows.

enactment. In particular, it seems reasonable to examine the influence of an individual's personal preferences (i.e., values) which may or may not correspond to his/her beliefs about normative expectancies. The relationship between these two factors in determining what an individual does in sexual interactions is a fascinating, though unstudied, issue. At this point, it is only hypothesized that an individual's personal preferences are determined, at least in part, by what is expected of him/her as a function of his/her sex. In other words, it is proposed that normative expectancies mediate the influence of sex on personal preferences. This hypothesized role of values in the determination of sexual role enactment is represented by the pathways in the model depicted in Figure 3. This model includes two important psychosocial factors, normative expectancy and personal preference, which are hypothesized to mediate the effects of the target's sex on his/her sexual role enactment. Thus, this model makes the further distinction between basic "biological," internalized "sociocultural," and more "personal" determinants of role enactment in sexual interactions.

Perspective in Dyadic Interactions

So far, only the influence of the target's characteristics (in particular, his/her sex) upon sexual values, beliefs, and behaviors have been examined. A consideration of the dyadic nature of most sexual interactions, however, makes modification of this model necessary. The



but this is a model of an individual cognitive process

Figure 3. The addition of personal values to the psychosocial model of sexual role enactment. The unaccounted for determinants of personal preference are symbolized by E_3.

characteristics of the perceiver may be important determinants of sexual values, beliefs, and behaviors as well. Two types of perceiver characteristics (i.e., perspective differences) will be examined: (a) whether the perceiver is the male or the female in the sexual interaction, that is, the sex of the perceiver; and (b) whether the perceiver is talking about him/herself as the target enacting the behavior of interest (i.e., the "actor") or about his/her partner as the target enacting the behavior (i.e., the "participant-observer"). It is proposed that these perspective differences influence the perceiver's personal preference regarding the target's sexual role orientation. For instance, the wife in a couple may prefer to take a passive sexual role herself, whereas her husband may prefer her to be more active. In addition, it is proposed that each perceiver in the dyad may have a different perception of the extent to which the target actually enacts the particular sexual role behavior. For instance, the husband in a couple may perceive himself as the aggressor in their sexual interactions, whereas his wife may perceive them to be equally aggressive.

There is some empirical evidence which supports the notion of perspective effects on sexual preference. For instance, sexuality surveys tend to find that males report higher preferred rates of sexual intercourse than their partners (e.g., Levinger, 1966). Data which are more directly relevant to our focus on sexual roles come from a recent empirical empirical investigation by Allgeier and Fogel (1978). In their study, males and

females were asked to make judgments about a couple in stimulus slides engaging in a variety of coital positions. Although not predicted by the investigators, the couple's coital position consistently interacted with the subjects' sex to produce differences in ratings given both the man and the woman in the slides. Internal comparisons revealed that the females consistently rated the couple in the woman-above position more negatively than they did the couple in the woman-below position. Males, on the other hand, tended to respond more positively to the couple in the woman-above position than in the woman-below position. Although Allgeier did not attempt to interpret this pattern of results, it may reflect a general preference for the enactment of active sexual role behavior by the opposite sex. Within an ongoing sexual relationship, this pattern would take the form of an "actor-observer" effect such that each partner prefers his/her partner to enact active sexual role behavior more than him/herself. Further support for this interesting proposition will be examined below. These findings suggest that there may be something positive about being the recipient of active sexual behavior. For instance, it could imply that the "actor" cares about you. This speculation about the relationship between personal preferences and motivational attributions will be continued later in this paper. For now, it is simply hypothesized that these values are influenced by the perspective of the perceiver. No evidence has been found to date to support such a perspective effect on normative expectancy.

Findings from several sexuality surveys also support the notion that reports of sexual behaviors are not as objective as might be expected. For instance, in one of their surveys, Kinsey, Pomeroy, and Martin (1948) compared husband and wife reports in 231 couples and concluded that "the research shows an amazing agreement." However, an examination of their data reveals that agreement is only high on demographic variables. Correlations of coital frequency actually ranged from .50 to .60. This lack of agreement indicates the need to consider the perspective of the perceiver when attempting to understand the determinants of reported sexual role enactment. Moreover, findings of this type shift our focus from actual to perceived sexual role enactment. Since actual sexual role enactment is obviously the primary determinant of its perception, the determinants of actual enactment, including sex of target, normative expectancy, and personal preference, are also major influences on perceived role enactment. However, the nature of specific perspective effects on the perception of role enactment is less clear at this point.

A consideration of the interpretative processes involved in person perception, however, suggests that the effect of perspective on perceived behavior is mediated by its direct influence on values and beliefs which, in turn, effect the perception of the behavior (e.g., see Bruner & Goodman, 1947; Secord & Backman, 1974). In other words, it is hypothesized that what we "see" is influenced by what we desire and believe. The direct effect of perceiver characteristics on sexual values was discussed

above. Therefore, the influence of these values on perceived sexual role enactment is examined next.

In a relevant study of "actual" and preferred sexual frequency reports in couples, Levinger (1966) found in his sample that wives tended to report higher rates of sexual intercourse than their husbands. In addition, husbands preferred higher rates of sexual intercourse than their wives. This pattern of results can be interpreted in the following way: behavioral estimates appear to be biased in a direction opposite to preferences. In other words, the more a behavior is desired, the less it seems to occur. This proposition is illustrated by the classic sexual complaint of men and women:

> Man: "Doctor, we hardly ever have sex . . . only three times a week!"
>
> Woman: "Doctor, we have sex constantly . . . maybe three times a week!" (Paraphrased from Woody Allen's Annie Hall)

Although these partners end up in agreement with regards to actual behavioral frequency, influence of perspective on perception is clear. This proposition suggests that a perspective bias exists which directly counters the earlier proposed relationship between preference and actual role enactment. Thus, although the more an individual prefers a particular role behavior for him/herself or for his/her partner, the more the target will enact the behavior, he/she is also likely to report a behavioral frequency which is lower than someone whose preference is lower.

This hypothesis can be integrated with the previous proposition

concerning the influence of perspective on personal preferences. Together, they suggest that not only might each partner prefer the other to enact a more active sexual role, but that as a result, he/she may tend to report less consistent enactment of these behaviors for the other than the other reports for him/herself. The opposite pattern is expected for the enactment of a passive sexual role. Obviously, these specific hypotheses are rather speculative. The important point is that they are consistent with the more general proposition that the biasing effects of perspective on behavioral reports are mediated by their influence on behavioral preferences.

Finally, although not an effect of perspective differences, normative expectancies are hypothesized to directly influence perceived as well as actual sexual role enactment. That is, a biasing effect is suggested such that individuals tend to see what they expect to see. For instance, men are likely to be perceived as enacting an active sexual role more consistently than they actually do, whereas women are likely to be perceived as enacting this role less consistently than they actually do. This proposition is similar to a number of theoretical formulations on consistency in person perception (e.g., see Kelly, 1963; Secord & Backman, 1974).

The distinctions between target and perceiver characteristics, and between actual and perceived role enactment, as well as the direct and indirect relationships hypothesized above, are represented in the model depicted in Figure 4. Unfortunately, this distinction between actual and

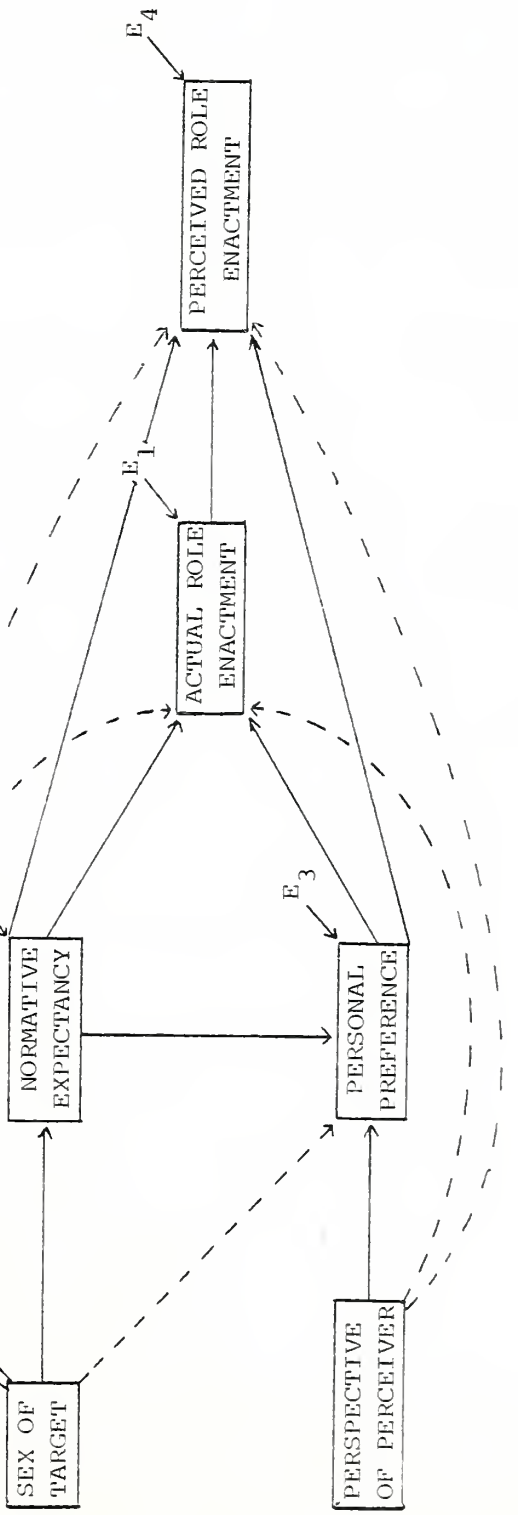


Figure 4. A model of actual and perceived sexual role enactment. For the purpose of path simplicity, both perceiver characteristics have been represented as a single factor, the perspective of the perceiver. In addition, the unaccounted for determinants of perceived role enactment are symbolized by E_4.

perceived sexual role enactment may be quite difficult to assess in investigations of sexual interactions since the measurement of the actual sexual behaviors by the researcher is likely to be a rather artificial and intrusive operation. Therefore, for the purpose of developing a model of sexual interactions which is more functional with regards to empirical testing, an alternative model is presented in Figure 5 which removes actual role enactment. This limitation, however, makes several of the above propositions untestable. In particular, the influence of values on behavior becomes somewhat blurred since opposite effects were predicted for actual and perceived role enactment. Although these relationships may someday be examined under certain experimental conditions, the simplified model depicted in Figure 5 will be used throughout the rest of this paper.

In summary, this model outlines the proposed pathways involved in the determination of perceived sexual role enactment in dyadic relationships. Specifically, it is hypothesized that an individual's beliefs (i.e., normative expectancy) and values (i.e., personal preference) mediate the influence of target characteristics (i.e., sex) on perceived sexual role enactment of the target. In addition, normative expectancy is hypothesized to mediate the effect of sex of target on personal preference. Finally, it is hypothesized that personal preference mediates the influence of perceiver characteristics (i.e., sex and actor-observer differences) on perceived sexual role enactment.

This model may help to clarify an interesting pattern of values found

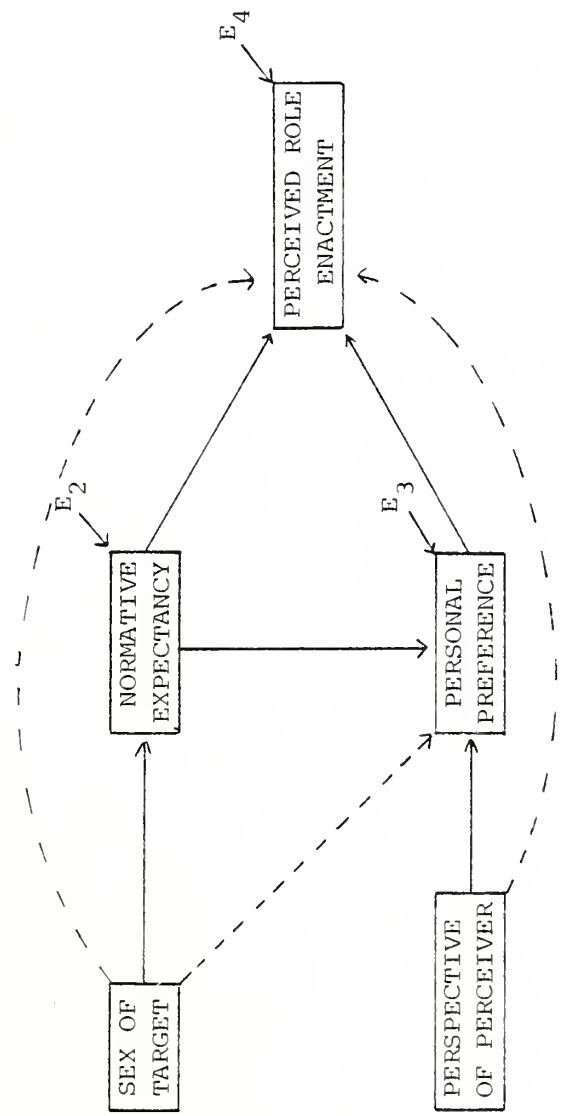


Figure 5. A psychosocial model of perceived sexual role enactment.

in several recent studies of sexual initiation in married couples. Carlson (1976) found that while 44% of the husbands in his sample felt that husbands should assume the chief responsibility for making sexual overtures, 45% felt that the responsibility for sexual initiation should be equal. On the other hand, about half of their wives agreed that the husband should be the initiator, only 26% thought the responsibility should be shared, the remainder refusing to assign responsibility to either spouse. Furthermore, in a recent study by this author using a sample of college-educated young couples, husbands, in general, reported that they would prefer both partners to be equally active in making sexual advances in their relationships, whereas their wives reported that they would prefer a more traditional pattern (Crain & Roth, 1977). Although this pattern could be interpreted as simply indicating a greater role value flexibility or "liberation" on the part of the males, the model and role propositions developed above offer a more complete explanation. Specifically, this difference in sexual role values is hypothesized to result from the joint influence of sex of target differences in normative expectancy and the proposed actor-observer effect on personal preference. For females, the influence of both effects is in the same direction, producing a traditional set of values. For males, on the other hand, the effects influence preferences in opposing directions, resulting in a more equalitarian set of values. Thus, together, these predicted effects would produce the sex differences in sexual role values found in these recent studies.

Various aspects of this model of perceived sexual role enactment are exemplified in the following sexual interaction. In this imaginary relationship, both Jack and Jill agree about the generally expected sex differences in sexual role enactment, that is, that men tend to take an active sexual role while women tend to take a more passive role. However, a basic value conflict exists such that each of them prefers a more active sexual role for the other than the other prefers for him/herself. A direct result of this agreed upon sex difference in normative expectancy, together with this value conflict, is that Jack prefers a relatively equalitarian sexual role orientation in their relationship, whereas Jill prefers that they enact more traditional roles. Consequently, the sexual role enacted by Jack and Jill tends to be somewhere in between these preferred role patterns, that is, they are both moderately active in their sexual interactions, though Jack tends to be more initiative while Jill tends to set the limits. Given their interpersonal value conflict, however, Jack tends to emphasize the traditionality of the relationship, whereas Jill tends to minimize it. These perspective differences in Jack and Jill's sexual relationship illustrate their conflicting values and behavioral perceptions. Obviously, this discussion could next examine their meta-perspectives, that is, a comparison between what each partner thinks the other believes, values, and perceives and what the other says about him/herself (e.g., see Laing, Phillipson, & Lee, 1966). However, for the sake of relative simplicity, our analysis is restricted to the first-order perspective

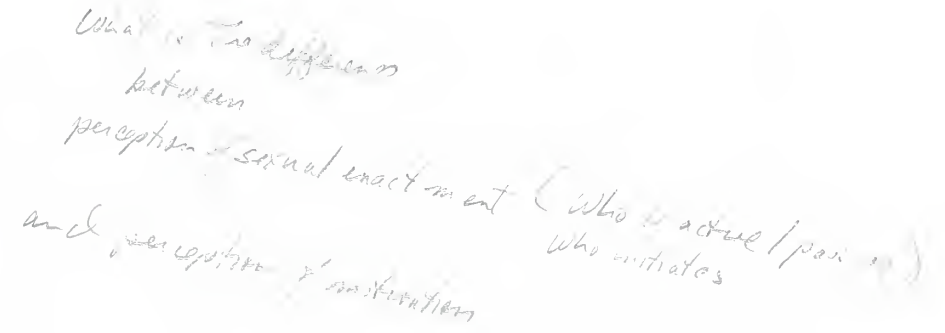
differences examined above.

Motivational Attributions

Sex Differences in Sexual Motivations

Even more interesting than sex differences in perceived sexual role enactment are the differences in the interpretations or attributions which partners make regarding the target's sexual motivations. Unfortunately, nearly all the research on sex differences in sexuality has focused upon the frequency of various sexual behaviors and, to a lesser extent, upon the attitudes of acceptance toward these behaviors and upon sexual arousal. As a result of these research foci, investigators have almost ignored the important meanings of these sexual behaviors (as well as their absences) to the partners. This analysis of the field has been made elsewhere in more depth (Crain, 1976; Crain & Roth, 1977) and will not be discussed further.

It is therefore necessary to examine our culture's sexual folklore in order to begin an investigation into the meanings of sexual acts. A core set of meanings in sexual interactions is derived from the attribution of the actor's motives in engaging in the particular sexual behavior(s). Anecdotal evidence suggests that the motivations typically attributed to an individual for enacting sexual behaviors are sex-linked. Thus, the stereotypic male is generally perceived to enact active sexual behaviors in order to satisfy his high sexual drive. On the other hand, the stereotypic female


What is the difference
between
perception + sexual enactment (who is active / passive)
who initiates
and

exhibiting sexual behaviors is typically said to be motivated by more interpersonal and emotional concerns, such as a desire to express love or as a duty to her partner in exchange for his emotional commitment. This sex difference in sexual motivations has been described in a broad range of literatures, though with almost no empirical support (Gagnon & Simon, 1973; Gross, 1978; Kaplan, 1976; Millet, 1971; Morgan, 1970).

The existence of these sex differences is illustrated by the findings from the Hite (1976) and Pietropinto-Simenauer (1977) surveys described earlier. In these samples, respondents tended to attribute stereotypic sex-linked motivations to their sexual partners. Thus, men tended to report that their partners were primarily motivated by nonsexual, emotional factors within their sexual interactions, whereas women tended to report that their partners were basically motivated by sexual needs and drives. Self-reports in these surveys, however, tended to be less stereotypic. Although these findings are interesting, they are difficult to interpret for a number of reasons, including those mentioned earlier. In particular, since individuals rather than couples were being studied, the nature of these interpretation processes in ongoing sexual interactions is obscured. Nevertheless, these findings illustrate the nature of the stereotypic sexual motivations.

It is often assumed that these sex differences in motivational attributions simply reflect actual differences in biological drives or motivations between males and females (Bardwick, 1970, 1977; Kaats & Davis,

1972; Socarides, 1977). Using this formulation, sex alone would be hypothesized to determine these motivational attributions. This "biological" or "stereotyping" model is represented in Figure 6.

Cognitive Factors in Attribution Formation

Theories of attribution processes. The application of attribution theories in social psychology (e.g., Jones & Davis, 1965; Jones & McGillis, 1976; Kelley, 1967, 1971) to sexual interactions suggests alternative, more psychologically oriented mechanisms of determination of these differential interpretations of male and female sexual behavior. Within the attributional perspective, it is generally assumed that a perceiver has two types of information when attempting to explain a target's behavior: the observed behavior and the expectancies which the perceiver has for the target's behavior. Resulting attributions concerning the cause of the behavior are then made by a comparison between the two sets of information. In their attempt to integrate current attributional theories, Jones and McGillis (1976) have suggested that the perceiver's expectancies concerning a target's behaviors are derived from several sources which they differentiate into two general types: (a) normative, or category-based expectancies, based on inferences derived from the target person's membership in a social category, such as sex, age, occupation, or ethnic origin; and (b) target-based expectancies, based on knowledge about the behaviors enacted by the target at other times.

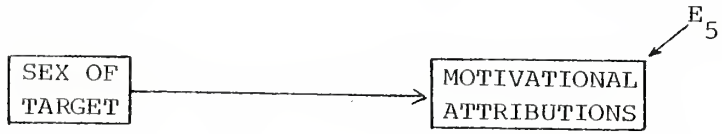


Figure 6. The "biological" model of sex differences in motivational attributions. The unaccounted for determinants of motivational attributions are symbolized by E_5.

Category-based expectancies. Category-based expectancies are clearly relevant to understanding sex-linked attributions in sexual interactions. As proposed earlier, perceivers have normative expectancies for sexual role enactment derived from sex-based stereotypic assumptions. Attribution theorists differ, however, as to the processes involved in the perceiver's comparison between these sex-based normative expectancies and the target's observed behavior. Jones and Davis' (1965) correspondent inference theory has been the most influential and studied attribution theory relevant to this issue as indicated by subsequent theoretical and research publications.

Jones and Davis (1965) argued that attributions about the personal characteristics of the target are made with greater confidence and strength when the perceiver is presented with out-of-role behavior by the target. According to their theory, since out-of-role behavior disconfirms prior expectancies, it demands an explanation beyond such common causes as social desirability. In other words, "the more dramatically a clear expectancy is disconfirmed by clear behavior, the more will the attitude attribution reflect that behavior" (Jones, Worchel, Goethals, & Grumet, 1971, p. 61). Their rationale for this notion of "contrast effects" is that a perceiver infers that a person enacting out-of-role behavior must have a strong internal disposition motivating the behavior in order to break social norms.

Jones and Davis' theory predicts an interesting attributional pattern

in sexual interactions. Since active sexual role enactment is not expected for females (i.e., low normative expectancy), the enactment of such role behaviors should result in greater correspondent dispositional attributions, such as high sexual needs, than the same behaviors enacted by males for whom it is expected (i.e., high normative expectancy). This notion is consistent with the stereotyped cultural image of the sexually aggressive woman who "really needs it." Moreover, Safilios-Rothschild (1977) has suggested that women are reluctant to take the initiative in sex because they may "feel uncomfortable when they take an active sexual role [and] are concerned about appearing to be over-sexed, demanding, and . . . threatening" (p. 112). The violation of sexual role norms may lead to unfavorable inferences about the individual's motives and personality which he/she would want to avoid. Thus, this line of reasoning offers a possible explanation for the maintenance of traditional sexual role patterns in relationships.

Unfortunately, reviews of the experimental investigations which have attempted to test predictions derived from correspondent inference theory have found little support for the existence of contrast effects (Jones & McGillis, 1976; Kelley, 1971). Moreover, there are theoretical alternatives which may better describe these attributional processes in person perception situations. In particular, given the negative findings of contrast effects in the research literature, it seems reasonable to speculate that out-of-role behaviors are actually explained away by attributing the

unexpected behavior to such causes as circumstantial constraints and other situational factors.

A number of studies on the effects of sex on attributions of success and failure performances in achievement situations support this notion. In a recent review of this literature, Deaux (1976) found an interesting pattern of findings. In general, a successful performance by a male tends to be attributed to ability, whereas the identical performance by a female tends to be attributed to luck or effort. On the other hand, failures by a male are generally attributed to task difficulty, whereas failures by a female are generally attributed to lack of ability. These sex differences are found for both self and other attributions in the context of specified achievement-oriented tasks. From these findings, Deaux has derived the following attributional principles:

> 1. Performance by a target which is consistent with the [sex-based] expectancy for that target will be attributed to a stable rather than a temporary cause.
>
> 2. Performance by a target which is inconsistent with the [sex-based] expectancy for that target will be attributed to a temporary cause.

These empirically supported attributional principles suggest, in contrast to Jones and Davis' (1965) formulation, that role behaviors are generally interpreted to correspond to the prior sex-based expectancies. Therefore, if a behavior is out-of-role, it is explained away by attributing

it to a temporary and situational cause. On the other hand, if the behavior is in-role, it is explained by the prior expectancy, that is, it was expected and will continue to be expected. Therefore, this in-role behavior is attributed to a stable and often dispositional cause. Thus, this proposed attributional process can account for the maintenance of both stereotyped expectancies and motivational attributions despite contradictory behavioral data.

Deaux's attributional principles can be used to explain the maintenance of sex-linked motivational attributions in sexual interactions. However, before applying these principles to sexual interactions, it is necessary to categorize sexual motivations along the dimension of stability. Since this is an unexplored topic, only a tentative causal analysis of these attributions can be made at this time. Within the realm of sexual interactions, stable attributions are assumed to include such factors as the target's inner sexual needs or inadequacies as well as his/her lasting love or hate for his/her partner. Unstable or temporary attributions, on the other hand, are assumed to include such factors as a good or bad mood as well as situational feelings of obligation, guilt, or anger.

Applying these category-based attributional principles to sexual interactions, since active sexual role enactment is expected of men, it is typically attributed to a stable cause, such as his inner sexual needs. On the other hand, since it is not expected of women, its enactment is usually attributed to a temporary cause, such as her good mood or an obligation

to her partner. Therefore, even if a woman initiates sex, she is likely to be seen (and see herself) as motivated by one of these temporary factors. Since limit-setting sexual role enactment is expected of women, it should typically be attributed to stable causes, such as her sexual inadequacies. On the other hand, since it is not expected of men, its enactment is usually attributed to a temporary cause, such as his bad mood or his situationally bad feelings toward his partner. Therefore, even if a man rejects his partner's advances, he is likely to be seen (and see himself) as motivated by one of these temporary factors. Thus, the prior normative expectancy and stereotyped motivational attributions are maintained in spite of the enactment of out-of-role behaviors. In fact, since normative expectancies have been assumed to be a primary determinant of sexual role enactment, traditional role patterns are also maintained by this attributional process. The mediation pathway of the effects of sex of target on motivational attributions through normative expectancies is included in the revised, more psychologically oriented model represented in Figure 7.

As mentioned earlier in this discussion, the notion of contrast effects has some intuitive appeal in spite of the lack of empirical support. Therefore, it becomes interesting to speculate about the original basis of its conception. How can we explain the popularity of the image of the sexually aggressive woman who is seen to "really need it," or of the sexually passive man who is seen as "emasculate" and possibly

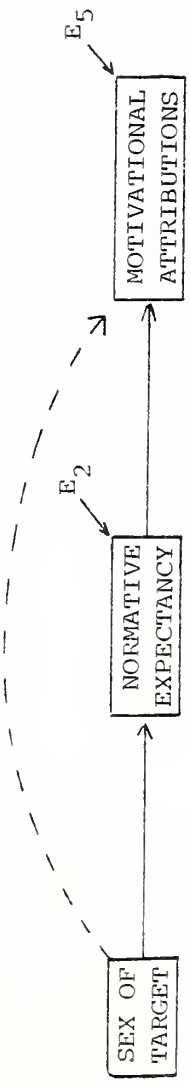


Figure 7. A "psychosocial" model of motivational attributions.

"homosexual"? Deaux's expectancy-maintenance theory certainly does not account for them. An intriguing possibility is that these out-of-role attributions and contrast effects are lost in most experimental investigations since the observed behaviors are so well controlled. It may be that in real-world situations, the contrast effect is actually in the target rather than the perceiver. That is, it may be the target who overcompensates when acting out-of-role rather than the perceiver in making attributions. Thus, a woman in her attempt to overcome passivity may enact a more active sexual role than a man who is more comfortable and experienced with this role. Or, a man in his attempt to overcome a stereotyped image of the aggressor may enact a more passive sexual role than a woman who is more experienced with this role. This general notion of behavioral overcompensation is well supported in the clinical literature (e.g., Adler, 1927). This proposition implies that contrast effects may appear if the observed behaviors in studies are freely enacted, as in actual sexual interactions.

Target-based expectancies. More generally, what happens when individuals consistently enact cross-sex sexual roles? Although sexual role enactment is hypothesized to vary as a function of the target's sex, there is likely to be considerable role variability within each sex, as well as some overlap between the sexes, as suggested by the influence of personal preference on sexual role enactment. Thus, the existence of consistent cross-sex sexual role enactment is quite likely. Unfortunately,

the attribution theories and investigations examined above are concerned almost entirely with stranger situations in which knowledge about the target's behaviors is limited to a very brief excerpt from his/her behavioral repertoire. Therefore, they do not address this important issue. Moreover, in ongoing sexual interactions, partners obviously have considerably more information about each of their role enactment histories than do subjects in artificially contrived experimental situations with strangers. In fact, it is possible that within ongoing sexual interactions, this information regarding the target's role enactment becomes more important than the category-based expectancies examined above. In other words, normative expectancies may be important for attribution formation processes only when behavioral information is minimal. This important consideration brings us to Jones and McGillis' (1976) second source of expectancy information: target-based expectancies. At this point, it is not clear how perceivers can use this behavioral information in making motivational attributions.

Kelley (1967, 1971) has proposed a set of attributional rules which shed some light on how target-based expectancies are compared to the currently enacted behavior of the target to produce causal attributions. In his theory, these target-based expectancies are differentiated into two types: (a) consistency, that is, the extent to which the target responds similarly to the stimulus at other times and places; and (b) distinctiveness, that is, the extent to which the target responds differentially to

different entities. According to Kelley, the perceiver's task is to use this behavioral information, together with the current behavior, to choose among three possible causes of the target's behavior: (a) something about the person (i.e., stable-internal attributions); (b) something about the stimulus (i.e., stable-external attributions); or (c) something about the circumstances (i.e., unstable attributions). Thus, these attributions are based upon two related dimensions: stable-unstable and internal-external. Kelley reasoned that this information is used in a logical fashion, similar to how a scientist solves a problem. Thus, person attributions are predicted when a behavior is characterized by low distinctiveness and high consistency. Stimulus attributions are predicted when a behavior is characterized by high distinctiveness and high consistency. Finally, circumstance attributions are predicted when a behavior is characterized by low consistency.

McArthur (1972) manipulated these variables factorially in an experiment presenting vignettes of accomplishment, emotion, opinion, and action. Her results support Kelley's predictions concerning the influence of consistency and distinctiveness information on causal attributions. Several recent studies have replicated and extended these basic findings to other contexts (McArthur, 1976; Orvis, Cunningham, & Kelley, 1975; Ruble & Feldman, 1976). Therefore, according to this set of attributional rules and empirical findings:

1. The more consistently a target has enacted the particular

behavior in the past, the more its enactment is attributed to a stable rather than a temporary cause.

2. The less consistently a target has enacted the particular behavior in the past, the more its enactment is attributed to a temporary cause.

3. If consistent, the more distinctively a target has enacted the particular behavior in the past, the more its enactment is attributed to the stimulus (i.e., stable-external attribution) rather than to the person.

4. If consistent, the less distinctively a target has enacted the particular behavior in the past, the more its enactment is attributed to the person (i.e., stable-internal attribution).

These target-based attributional principles present an alternative explanation for the existence of sex differences in motivational attributions. They suggest that the sexual behaviors generally enacted by the target produce target-based expectancies which are used in a rational process to infer causality without necessarily using the sex-based expectancies for the behaviors. However, before applying these principles to sexual interactions, it is necessary to further categorize sexual motivations in order to include the person-stimulus (or internal-external) dimension. Again, only a tentative causal analysis of these motivations can be made at this time. Within the realm of sexual interactions, stimulus (i.e., stable-external) attributions are assumed to include relatively stable interpersonal

factors, such as the target's love or hate specifically for his/her partner. Although these stimulus attributions also have an internal element, this categorization is consistent with recent studies which demonstrate that, in general, stimulus attributions cannot be considered strictly external (cf. Kruglanski, 1977; Ross, 1977; Zuckerman, 1978). These studies indicate that even though behaviors may be seen as "voluntary," they are often attributed to the stimulus or circumstance. Thus, something about the stimulus or circumstance may often explain the actor's intents. Person (i.e., stable-internal) attributions, on the other hand, are assumed to include relatively stable intrapersonal factors, such as the target's inner sexual needs or inadequacies. Finally, circumstance (i.e., unstable) attributions are assumed to include both temporary interpersonal factors, such as obligation, guilt, or anger, as well as temporary intrapersonal factors, such as a good or bad mood.

Applying Kelley's attributional principles, active sexual role behaviors, such as sexual advances, which have been consistently and indistinctively enacted by an individual in the past should tend to be attributed to relatively stable intrapersonal causes, such as inner sexual needs. The same behaviors which have been enacted consistently, but more distinctively, in the past should tend to be attributed to relatively stable interpersonal causes, such as the expression of love. Finally, active sexual role behaviors which have been enacted inconsistently in the past should tend to be attributed to the circumstances, such as duty, obligation,

or a good mood. Thus, a man engaging in active sexual role behaviors, such as sexual advances, is likely to be seen (and see himself) as motivated by more stable and internal factors, such as his inner sexual needs, than a woman engaging in the same behaviors, not simply because he is a male, or that the behaviors are expected of him because he is a male, but because he more consistently and indistinctively makes the advances in sexual interactions.

On the other hand, passive sexual role behaviors, such as limit-setting, which have been consistently and indistinctively enacted by an individual in the past should be attributed to intrapersonal factors, such as sexual inhibitions. The same behaviors which have been enacted consistently, but more distinctively, in the past should be attributed to interpersonal motives, such as dislike for the particular individual. Finally, passive sexual role behaviors which have been enacted inconsistently should be attributed to the circumstances, such as anger or a bad mood. Thus, a woman engaging in passive sexual role behaviors, such as limit-setting, is likely to be seen (and see herself) as motivated by more stable and internal factors, such as sexual inhibition, than a man engaging in the same behaviors, not simply because she is a female, or that the behaviors are expected of her because she is a female, but because she more consistently and indistinctively sets the limits in sexual interactions. This line of reasoning implies that if a woman and a man each generally enact the same sexual role, they would be seen (and see

themselves) as motivated by the same factors when engaging in these sexual role behaviors. This viewpoint assumes that the critical difference regarding sexual attributions is in the roles enacted rather than in differences in biology or normative expectancies per se.

At this point it is not clear how the perceiver uses target-based and category-based expectancies in making attributions in actual interactions since both are usually available to him/her. Obviously, when information about the target's past role enactment is minimal, as in the observation of a stranger, category-based expectancies are used in explaining current behaviors. However, this situation is quite artificial when considering the context of most sexual interactions. Therefore, it is necessary to consider what happens in more intimate situations when the perceiver has knowledge about both category-based and target-based expectancies. Referring to the model being developed, it was hypothesized that normative expectancies are important determinants of both actual and perceived sexual role enactment. Within ongoing relationships, target-based expectancies are derived directly from perceived prior role enactment and are hypothesized to influence motivational attributions. Thus, sexual role behaviors (more specifically, target-based expectancies) are hypothesized to mediate the influence of normative expectancies (i.e., category-based expectancies) on motivational attributions. In other words, it is assumed that an individual is generally seen as doing what is expected of him/her as a function of his/her sex (i.e., in-role enactment). Then, what is

expected of him/her as a function of what he/she is seen as generally doing influences the attribution process directly, as described above.

This attributional process assumes that target-based expectancies are derived from two important dimensions of the target's behavioral enactment: consistency and distinctiveness. The typical sexual behaviors of men and women also appear to differ along both of these dimensions, as described earlier. Thus, men are not only expected to enact an active sexual role more consistently than women, but also less distinctively, that is, directed toward a greater number of members of the opposite sex. Women, on the other hand, are expected to fairly consistently and indistinctively enact a passive sexual role, especially limit-setting behaviors. Thus, normative expectancies regarding behavior consistency and distinctiveness are hypothesized to influence the consistency and distinctiveness of sexual role enactment. Target-based expectancies, derived from the perception of this role enactment, are then hypothesized to influence motivational attributions along the dimensions of internality and stability. This in-role enactment and attributional process is represented in the model depicted in Figure 8.

As suggested earlier, however, role enactment patterns are also influenced by personal values. As a consequence, some individuals generally enact an out-of-role position. For instance, some females probably do take on a rather active role in their sexual relations, while some males probably enact a relatively passive role. This incongruity

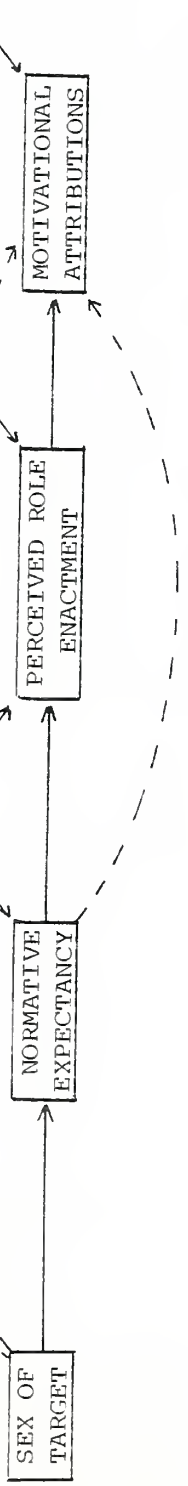


Figure 8. A model of "in-role" sexual role enactment and motivational attributions.

between normative and target-based expectancies raises the important question as to how these different sets of expectancies are used by the perceiver in forming attributions. It can be recalled that the basic premise regarding attribution formation was that attributions are influenced by a comparison between what the perceiver expects of the target and what the target is currently doing. Obviously, the best source of information for specific expectancies concerning the target is the target's own behavioral repertoire, past and present. Or, as Kelley (1967) noted: "physical reality takes precedence over social reality" (p. 207).

Thus, a simple proposition is generated: the more information the perceiver has of the target's prior role enactment (as in self-attributions and intimate-other attributions), the more target-based expectancies are used in making attributions. However, if this personal information is minimal, more general category-based expectancies need to be used. Thus, the stereotyping effect of normative expectancies on motivational attributions in stranger situations is hypothesized to be lessened by the increasing importance of target-based expectancies based upon an increasing knowledge about past behaviors. The importance of perceived role enactment on motivational attributions is represented in the more complete model depicted in Figure 9.

Expectancy-based attributional principles. The theories discussed in this section generally agree that attributions are determined by the perceiver's comparison between the current behavior of the target and the

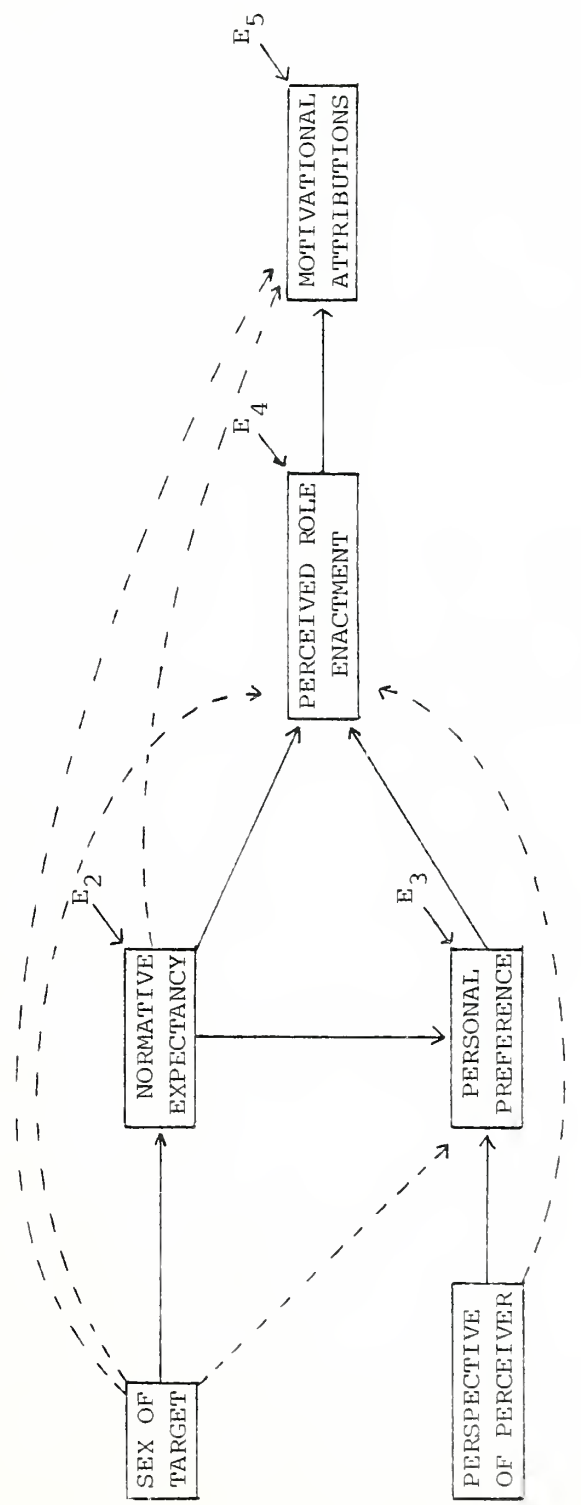


Figure 9. A more general model of perceived sexual role enactment and motivational attributions.

behaviors expected of the target by the perceiver. The theories differ, however, regarding the source of these expectancies such that some consider expectancies based upon the target's category membership while another considers expectancies derived from the target's past behaviors. So far, these perspectives have generally been examined separately, resulting in the development of two sets of attributional principles relevant to role enactment: category-based and target-based. However, important similarities between the two sets of principles suggest the need to compare and possibly to integrate them.

It was hypothesized above that both category-based and target-based expectancies are generated in two important dimensions: (a) consistency, that is, the extent to which the target is expected to respond similarly to the stimulus (e.g., current sexual partner) at other times and places (i.e., expected frequency of the behavior); and (b) distinctiveness, that is, the extent to which the target is expected to respond differentially to different stimuli (e.g., other potential sexual partners). The target-based principles proposed above define specific relationships between these expectancy dimensions and the stability and internality of the resulting attributions. The proposed category-based principles, on the other hand, only consider the influence of general behavioral expectancy on the stability of the attributions. Unfortunately, this notion of behavioral expectancy ignores the important difference between the normatively expected consistency and distinctiveness of the behaviors. As a result, it appears to

represent a continuum from expected (i.e., high consistency and low distinctiveness) to unexpected (i.e., low consistency and high distinctiveness).

It is now proposed that the attributional relationships developed for category-based expectancies as well as the empirical evidence for them actually deal only with the dimension of expected consistency of the behavior across time, that is, its relative frequency. If this hypothesis is correct, it implies an important similarity between the proposed target-based and category-based principles. In effect, both sets of principles are assumed to describe the same relationship between expected behavioral consistency and stability in attributions, such that:

1. The more frequently a target's behavior is expected to be enacted (either target-based or category-based), the more it will be attributed to a stable rather than a temporary cause.
2. The less frequently a target's behavior is expected to be enacted (either target-based or category-based), the more it will be attributed to a temporary cause.

Moreover, the target-based principles also attempt to explain the second attributional dimension, that is, internality. If it is assumed for the moment that the target-based principles also apply to category-based expectancies, the following two general principles can be added to the set:

3. The more a target's behavior is expected to be both consistent (i.e., frequent) and indistinctive (target-based or category-based),

the more it will be attributed to a stable-internal (i.e., intrapersonal) rather than a stable-external (i.e., interpersonal) cause.

4. The more a target's behavior is expected to be both consistent (i.e. frequent) and distinctive (target-based or category-based), the more it will be attributed to a stable-external (i.e., interpersonal) cause.

This new, more unified set of attributional principles represents a marked improvement upon the one-dimensional category-based principles discussed earlier. In particular, these principles suggest how the perceiver uses both category-based consistency and distinctiveness information in making attributions about the target's behavior. Their utility is supported, in part, by a reexamination of the findings Deaux (1976) refers to in her review of the sex and achievement attribution literature. Successful performances by a male were generally attributed to his ability, an internal and stable cause. On the other hand, successful performances by a female were generally attributed to her luck or effort, both unstable (temporary) causes. If it is assumed that successful behaviors are expected of men across situations (i.e., consistent and indistinctive), the above attributional principles offer an explanation for the internality of the attributions for males for which Deaux's principles do not account. A similar pattern occurs for attributions regarding failure. Failure by a male was generally attributed to task difficulty, a temporary cause. On the other hand, failures by a female were generally attributed to lack of ability, a stable and internal cause. Thus, again, it would

appear that a behavior which is normatively expected to occur relatively frequently and indistinctively is attributed to a stable and internal cause, whereas a behavior which is normatively expected to occur relatively infrequently is attributed to a temporary cause.

These attributional principles better explain the hypothesized nature of stereotypic sexual attributions than the category-based principles using only the dimension of behavioral consistency. Since active sexual role enactment is expected of men across situations, it is typically attributed to a stable and internal cause, such as his inner sexual needs. Since it is not expected of women, its enactment is usually attributed to a temporary cause, such as a good mood or an obligation to her partner. On the other hand, passive or limit-setting sexual role enactment is expected of women across situations and is typically attributed to a stable and internal cause, such as her sexual inhibitions. Since it is not expected of men, it is typically attributed to a temporary cause, such as anger toward his partner or a bad mood.

Influence of Personal Values

So far, only the cognitive aspects of attributional processes have been considered. However, given the existence of interdependent behavior and the emotional and meaning-laden nature of sexual interactions, it seems reasonable that personal values are critical in the formation of attributions to explain sexual behaviors. Unfortunately, although values

may be important and perhaps more influential than cognitive factors, at least in intimate interactions, attribution theories have emphasized expectancies to the near exclusion of values. Therefore, this discussion must remain rather speculative.

A preliminary consideration of this issue of motivated perception suggests a simple proposition: the more a behavior is valued positively by the perceiver, the more the inferred intent of the target will also be positive. This proposition requires an analysis of motivational attributions in sexual interactions along the dimension of positive-negative. For now, it is assumed that attributions such as the expression of love, affection, and other good feelings are positively valued, whereas attributions such as sexual inhibition and inadequacy are negatively valued. Therefore, an attributional bias is hypothesized to exist such that the more a sexual behavior is desired, the more it will be attributed to positively valued motivations, such as the expression of love. On the other hand, the less it is desired, the less it will be attributed to positively valued motivations and the more it will be attributed to negatively valued motivations, such as sexual inhibitions. In the future, however, an idiographic approach to assessing the evaluative dimension of attributions might be more appropriate.

In addition to this direct effect of values on attributions proposed above, an indirect effect is suggested by a consideration of the influence of values on perceived role enactment. It was hypothesized earlier that

the more an individual prefers a particular role behavior, the less consistent the behavior will appear to him/her. If this hypothesis is correct, it has an interesting implication for the influence of values on meanings. The proposed expectancy-based attributional principles suggest that the less consistent the behavior, the less stable the resulting attributions will be. Thus, the more a particular sexual role is preferred within a relationship, the more it will be attributed to a temporary rather than a stable cause. On the other hand, the less it is desired, the more it will be attributed to a stable cause. This effect, however, is mediated by perceived sexual role enactment. This hypothesis implies that the more an active sexual behavior is desired, the less it will be attributed to such stable motivations as sexual needs and drives. On the other hand, the less it is preferred, the more it will be attributed to these stable motivations. In addition, the more a passive or limit-setting sexual behavior is desired, the less it will be attributed to such stable factors as sexual inhibitions and inadequacies. The less it is preferred, on the other hand, the more it should be attributed to these stable causes.

These propositions concerning the direct and indirect influences of personal values on motivational attributions can be integrated. Together, they suggest that the more a particular behavior is valued, the more it will be attributed to relatively positive, unstable attributions. The less it is valued, on the other hand, the more it will be attributed to relatively negative, stable attributions. This new attributional principle produces

an interesting set of predictions for interpretations in sexual interactions. With regards to active sexual role enactment, the more these behaviors are valued, the more they are expected to be attributed to relatively positive, unstable factors, such as the expression of particularly good feelings; whereas the less they are valued, the more they are expected to be attributed to relatively less positive, stable factors, such as purely sexual needs. With regards to passive sexual role enactment, the more these behaviors are valued, the more they are expected to be attributed to relatively positive, unstable factors, such as fatigue or worry; whereas the less they are valued, the more they are expected to be attributed to relatively negative, stable factors, such as sexual inhibitions and inadequacies.

This evaluative attributional principle and set of predictions have some general implications for sexual interactions. They suggest that the more a behavior is valued, the more its enactment is meaningful with regards to the specific situation. For instance, the enactment of positively valued active sexual behaviors implies that the target is feeling particularly good about his/her partner or, at least, is in an especially good mood. On the other hand, the less a behavior is valued, the more its enactment is meaningful with regards to the target's (and/or his/her partner's) traits or characteristics. For instance, the enactment of negatively valued passive sexual behaviors implies that the target is sexually inhibited. Thus, the more positively valued behaviors are

enacted in a relationship, in general, the more positive situational attributions will be made; whereas the more negatively valued behaviors are enacted, the more negative dispositional attributions will be made regarding the target and/or his/her partner. Obviously, the latter type of attributions is likely to result in relationship difficulties.

These propositions suggest the existence of evaluative influences on motivational attributions. However, their importance relative to the more rational cognitive factors discussed earlier is unknown. Nevertheless, they imply that differences in sexual values between partners are expected to produce differences in attributions, that is, attributional conflicts. This important issue will be discussed further below. The addition of both direct and indirect influences of personal values on motivational attributions is depicted in Figure 10.

Influence of Perspective

The influence of perceiver characteristics (both sex and actor-observer differences) on values and perceived behavior have already been considered. Since these variables have also been hypothesized to act as determinants of attributions, perspective differences certainly appear to have an array of indirect influences on attributions. In particular, it was hypothesized that observers have higher preferences for the target enacting an active sexual role and lower preferences for the target enacting a passive sexual role, than the target him/herself. Furthermore, an

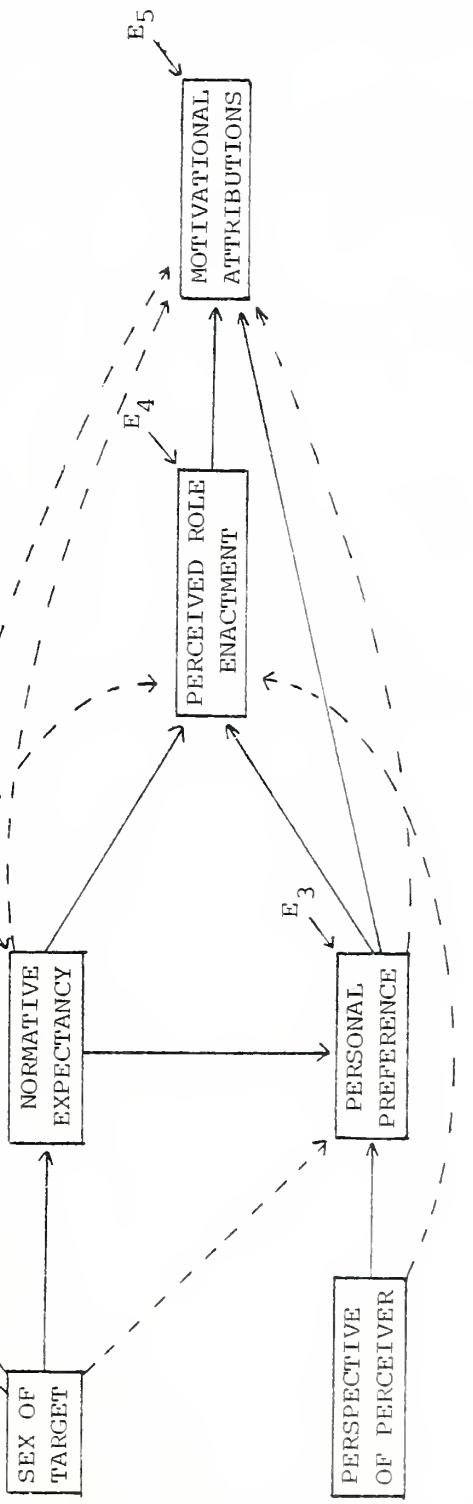


Figure 10. The addition of personal values to the model.

evaluative attributional principle was proposed such that the more a particular behavior is valued, the more its enactment will be attributed to relatively positive, unstable attributions; whereas the less it is valued, the more it will be attributed to relatively negative, stable attributions. If this chain of effects is put together (a risky proposition!), it can be hypothesized that observers attribute less stable and more positive motivations for active sexual role enactment and more stable and less positive motivations for passive sexual role enactment than the target's self-attributions. Specifically, this hypothesis implies that partners attribute each others' active sexual role enactment less to sexual needs and more to the expression of good feelings, as compared to the latter's self-attributions. On the other hand, partners are expected to attribute each others' passive sexual role enactment more to sexual inhibitions and less to a situationally bad mood, fatigue, or anger, as compared to the latter's self-attributions.

Although these specific predictions are quite speculative, they reflect a more general proposition that perspective differences are important determinants of value conflicts which then act as determinants of attributional conflicts. Part of this latter effect is hypothesized to be mediated by the influence of values on perceived role enactment. If this line of reasoning is correct, it suggests a basic tendency toward conflicts in meaning which may lead to disturbances in relationships. In fact, such attributional conflicts have not only been shown to exist in sexual

relationships (Crain & Roth, 1977), but have been found to be important determinants of sexual dissatisfaction and dysfunction, especially in women (Butterfield & Crain, 1978). Obviously, open and honest communication should go far toward reducing such conflicts, though such an exchange is unfortunately far too infrequent, particularly in the secretive realm of sexuality. The addition of these indirect perspective effects on attributions are represented in the model depicted in Figure 11, the final model of perceived sexual role enactment and motivational attributions to be proposed here.

The proposed determinants of attributions in sexual interactions are complex and sometimes speculative. In addition, the emphasis in this analysis has been on the basic direct and indirect causal pathways rather than on specific predictions. Nevertheless, various aspects of the model can be illustrated by returning to Jack and Jill's sexual relationship. It can be recalled that both partners agree about the generally expected sex differences in sexual role enactment. However, a value conflict exists such that Jack prefers a relatively equalitarian sexual role pattern in their relationship, whereas Jill prefers that they enact more traditional roles. As a result, they are both moderately active in their sexual interactions, though Jack tends to be more initiative while Jill tends to set the limits in their sexual interactions. Given their value conflict, however, Jack tends to emphasize the traditionality of the relationship, whereas Jill tends to minimize it.

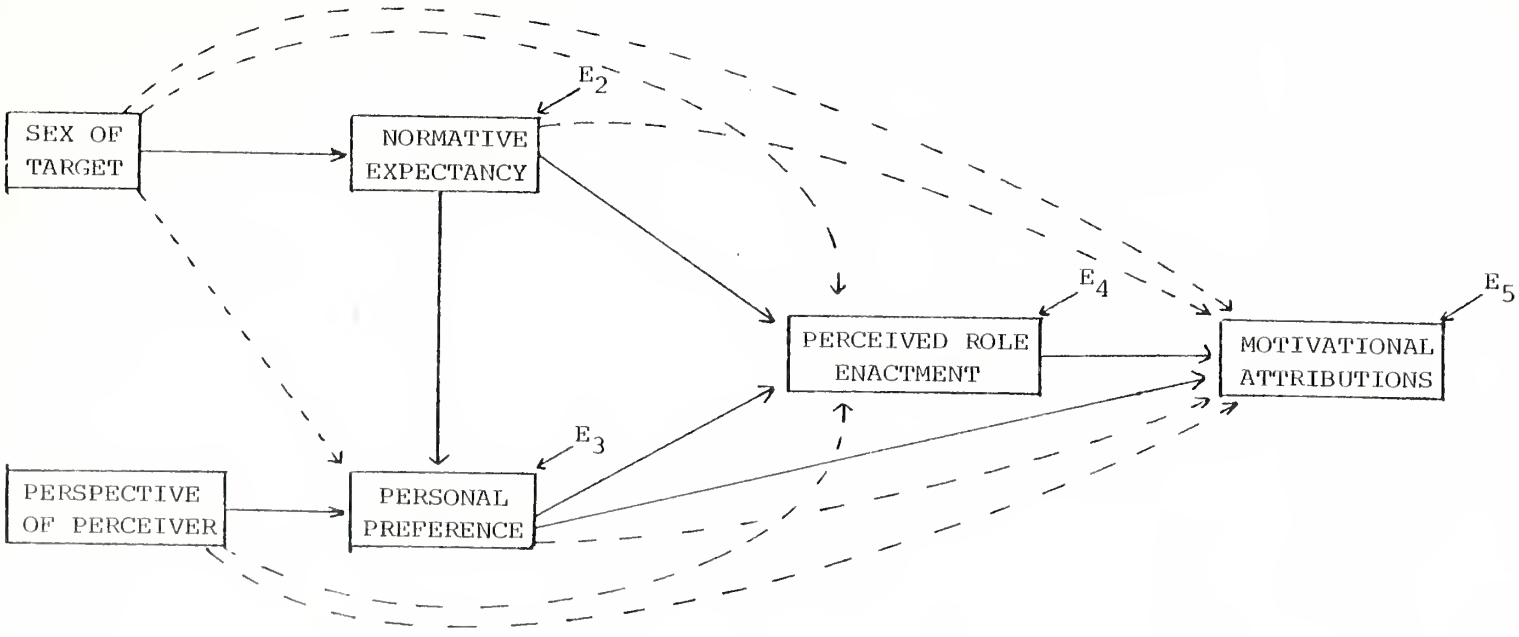


Figure 11. The proposed model of perceived sexual role enactment and motivational attributions in dyadic interactions. Direct paths are represented by solid arrows and indirect paths are represented by broken arrows. In addition, the symbol E represents the unaccounted for determinants of each variable in the model.

Now, what about the meanings inferred from these behaviors by the partners? Since they know each other quite intimately, their behaviors are most salient for their interpretations. Given their recent commitment to a monogomous sexual relationship and positive evaluation of active sexuality, Jack and Jill see each other (and themselves) as expressing considerable love and affection when engaging in active sexual behaviors. In addition, their frequent enactment of these behaviors results in seeing each other (and themselves) as also motivated by strong inner sexual needs, especially since each of them had been involved in previous sexual relationships. However, since Jack is more active and initiative in their sexual interactions, he is seen as having stronger sexual needs than Jill who is seen as motivated by more situationally good feelings toward Jack as well as some obligation to him. Furthermore, as a result of their conflicting values, an attributional conflict exists such that each of them see the other as motivated more to express love and less by inner needs than the other ascribes to him/herself. With regards to passive sexual role enactment, since Jill tends to set the limits on their sexual relations, she is seen as more sexually inhibited than Jack who is seen to reject Jill's sexual advances only when he is tired, worried, or angry. However, given their value conflict, they each tend to see the other as more inhibited when passive than the other sees him/herself. This pattern of motivational attributions and attributional conflicts produces some difficulties in their sexual relationship, though their open

communication and mutual trust usually alleviates most of their sexual problems, at least temporarily.

Summary of the Basic Model

Figure 11 summarizes the proposed model of perceived sexual role enactment and motivational attributions in ongoing dyadic interactions. It is hypothesized that both the perceiver's belief, or normative expectancy, concerning the sex-appropriate sexual role for the target as well as his/her personal preference concerning these behaviors mediate the effect of the target's biological sex on perceived sexual role enactment. This normative expectancy is also hypothesized to mediate the effect of the target's sex on personal preference. A target-based expectancy, derived from perceived sexual role enactment, is then hypothesized to mediate the influence of normative expectancy and biological sex on motivational attributions made for the target's behavior, following a proposed set of expectancy-based attributional principles. However, the less that is known about the target's past role enactment, the more normative expectancies are involved in the determination of attributions. In addition, personal preference is hypothesized to influence motivational attributions directly, though part of this effect may be mediated by the influence of this value on the perceived role enactment. Finally, the perspective or characteristics of the perceiver (i.e., biological sex and actor-observer differences) are hypothesized to influence his/her personal

preference for the target's sexual role. Thus, the perspective of the perceiver is hypothesized to indirectly produce perceived role enactment and attributional conflicts between partners. The unaccounted for determinants of each of the psychological variables are also represented in the model.

Although the model proposed here was developed with a focus upon sexual interactions, it may have more general utility as a basic model of perceived role enactment and causal attributions. Thus, even if sexual roles in our society do eventually change and possibly converge (as a function of changing values and beliefs), this model hopefully has applicability toward other roles, such as parental, occupational, and educational roles. This more flexible model is summarized in Figure 12. In this model of dyadic role interactions, the characteristics of the target and the perceiver represent such factors as sex, age, race, religion, socioeconomic status, marital status, length of relationship, relevant past experiences and training, and so on. These characteristics are hypothesized to be determinants of the perceiver's sociocultural beliefs (i.e., category-based expectancies) and personal values (i.e., preferences) concerning the target's role enactment. (The influence of perspective on beliefs is included due to the addition of sociological factors to the perceiver's characteristics.) These beliefs and values are hypothesized to act as determinants of perceived target role enactment from which target-based behavioral expectancies are derived. Within intimate interactions,

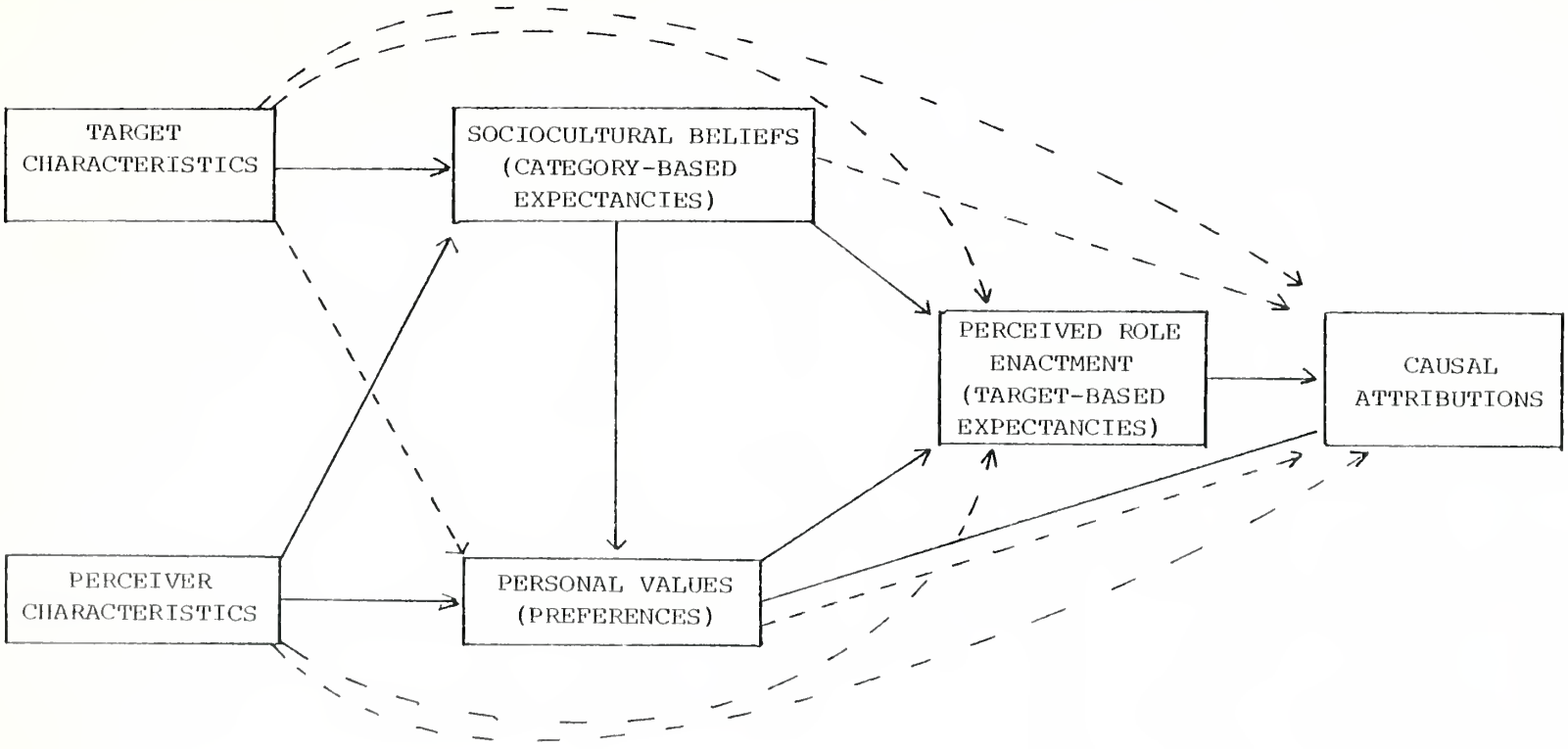


Figure 12. A general model of perceived role enactment and causal attributions in dyadic interactions. Direct paths are represented by solid arrows and indirect paths are represented by broken arrows.

these target-based expectancies are hypothesized to be the primary determinants of causal attributions for the target's role enactment, using the proposed set of expectancy-based attributional principles. However, the less that is known about the target's past role enactment, the more category-based expectancies are hypothesized to determine causal attributions, using the same principles. In addition, the perceiver's values concerning the target's role enactment are hypothesized to directly influence attributions as well as indirectly through their influence on perceived role enactment. Thus, the perspective of the perceiver is assumed to indirectly influence causal attributions, often resulting in attributional conflicts.

Moderating Influences on the Model

The model developed here represents the proposed causal relationships among several important variables in sexual interactions. It is suggested in this section, however, that the model may operate somewhat differently under different conditions. In other words, certain pathways may be more important with some circumstances than with others. More technically, the basic model makes an important assumption regarding the paths of influence. It assumes that these paths are linear or additive determinants, that is, main effects. Although this assumption has made good conceptual sense so far, it does involve certain limitations. In particular, there is reason to suggest that the relationship between expec-

tancies and attributions differs somewhat depending on the perceived freedom of behavioral enactment. Furthermore, there is some theoretical and empirical evidence to suggest that actors and observers do not necessarily use the model's pathways in the same way. As will be seen below, these issues represent moderating influences on the basic model in the form of interactional effects.

Perceived Constraint and Attributional Stereotypy

The expectancy-based attributional principles developed earlier included an assumption that as information about the target's past sexual role enactment increases, attributions come to be based more upon target-based rather than category-based expectancies. This assumption, however, requires further examination. It seems reasonable to assume that when the relevant behaviors are perceived as relatively unconstrained, expectancies based upon these behaviors are the ones primarily used to make attributions. On the other hand, when these behaviors are seen as relatively constrained, the perceiver has to deal with this complication. At least two options are available. First, the perceiver can attribute the behavior, at least in part, to the constraining factor itself. For instance, a wife who engages in active sexual role behavior simply because her husband wants her to is likely to be seen as acting out of duty. Or, a husband who enacts an active sexual role exclusively with his wife is likely to be seen as acting distinctively because of marital

obligation, not necessarily because of his expression of love to her.

However, this option does not deal with the target's more primary motivations for acting at all. Specifically, it is hypothesized that the target's primary motivations are inferred from the behaviors expected from the target under relatively unconstrained conditions, that is, from what the target would do if he/she were free to do whatever he/she would like to do. An important source of information about an individual's unconstrained behaviors is the set of relevant category-based normative expectancies. Thus, it is hypothesized that the more constrained current behaviors are perceived to be, the more normative expectancies are used instead of target-based expectancies in making motivational attributions, in spite of the perceiver's knowledge of the target's role enactment patterns.

This attributional principle is especially important when considering the increasing constraints placed upon sexual behaviors as partners become more committed to each other over time. In particular, partners are expected to become more monogamous, that is, their active sexual role enactment is supposed to become increasingly distinctive. For the woman, this distinctiveness is consistent with normative expectancies, that is, it is in-role. For the man, however, this distinctiveness is not consistent with normative expectancies, that is, it is out-of-role. Therefore, in spite of this cross-sex role enactment for men in marital (and other "high commitment") relationships, attributions for active

sexual role enactment are assumed to be more consistent with stereotypic attributions derived from normative expectancies. Thus, instead of being seen as motivated by more interpersonal factors when enacting active sexual behavior, their behaviors are still likely to be attributed primarily to intrapersonal motivations, such as sexual needs.

Furthermore, in high commitment relationships, partners are expected to become more sexually responsive to each other. For the man, this restriction on limit-setting is consistent with normative expectancies. For the woman, however, this constraint represents a decrease in her limit-setting role in their sexual interactions. Therefore, in spite of this cross-sex role enactment for women in these relationships, attributions for limit-setting role enactment are assumed to be more consistent with stereotypic attributions derived from normative expectancies. Thus, instead of being seen as motivated by more situational factors when setting sexual limits, such as a bad mood, these behaviors are still likely to be attributed primarily to more stable factors, such as sexual inhibitions.

Although this proposition is rather speculative, it does suggest an interesting mechanism for the maintenance of stereotypic expectancies in ongoing relationships under conditions of perceived constraint, even when behavior is out-of-role. In fact, this proposition is consistent with the normative expectancy-maintenance attributional principles proposed earlier. On the other hand, it is assumed that when behaviors are

out-of-role and perceived as relatively freely enacted, target-based expectancies are used, resulting in nonstereotyped motivational attributions. Although the construct of behavioral constraint could be included in the model, without it this proposition is represented by an interaction between sex of target and expectancies in the determination of attributions. Thus, perceived active sexual role enactment regarding behavioral distinctiveness is hypothesized to be more influential in determining motivational attributions for women, whereas normative expectancies regarding behavioral distinctiveness are hypothesized to be more influential in determining attributions for active sexual role enactment in men. On the other hand, the perceived consistency of limit-setting sexual role enactment is hypothesized to be more influential in determining attributions for men, whereas normative expectancies regarding behavioral consistency are hypothesized to be more influential in determining attributions for passive sexual role enactment in women.

Actor-Observer Differences: Cognitive Factors

The previous analysis generally assumed that targets (i.e., actors) and their partners (i.e., observers) in ongoing sexual interactiona use the same attributional processes and make the same attributions. Although an exception to this generalization was made involving the influence of hypothesized value differences between actors and their partners, further examination of this assumption may be useful. Jones

and Nisbett (1971), for instance, have proposed that observers tend to attribute dispositions in circumstances where actors attribute their behaviors to the situation. They argued that this effect occurs because actors typically know much more about their past behaviors in similar situations. As Kelley (1971) noted, however, this type of actor-observer effect has been somewhat elusive in experimental investigations. Moreover, the conceptual status of this proposition is questionable. If it is assumed that the actor has more awareness of his/her past behaviors, he/she is more likely to use expectancies based upon his/her own behaviors (i.e., target-based) in explaining his/her current behavior than the observer. On the other hand, the observer, having less information about the actor's past behaviors, is more likely to use category-based expectancies in making attributional inferences.

This argument suggests a significantly different proposition than Jones and Nisbett's. Assuming this informational difference exists, it is proposed that actors tend to make attributions which are more consistent with their past behaviors, whereas observers tend to make attributions which are more consistent with the expectancies derived from the target's category membership. This proposition implies that while actors' self-attributions tend to vary as a function of their own role enactment, observers' attributions tend to vary as a function of normative expectancies. Therefore, observers are expected to make more stereotyped attributions. Obviously, this proposition is quite different from

Jones and Nisbett's since stereotyped attributions are not necessarily more dispositional. Findings from a set of recent studies on actors' and observers' use of sample base-rate data offer support for this proposition (Hansen & Stonner, 1978). For instance, Hansen and Stonner (1978) found that observers' causal attributions were generally more sensitive to experimentally manipulated base-rate (or normative) information than were actors.

An interesting pattern of attributional conflicts are predicted when this proposition is applied to sexual interactions. For instance, it is predicted that women enacting an active sexual role see themselves as acting more out of sexual need than their partners see them. The men, on the other hand, are expected to see their partners as acting more out of duty than the women see themselves. This set of predictions is supported by the attributional conflicts inferred from the findings reported in the Hite (1976) and Pietropinto-Simenauer (1977) sexual surveys described in the beginning of this paper. This actor-observer difference and resulting attributional conflicts should be minimized, however, as intimacy and knowledge of each other's behavior patterns increase, as in long-term relationships. In addition, as noted earlier, open and honest communication about sexual behaviors and motivations should minimize such conflicts.

This actor-observer difference represents a moderating influence on the model in the form of an interaction between perspective of the

perceiver and expectancies in the determination of attributions. Thus, normative expectancies are predicted to have a greater influence on attributions for observers than actors. On the other hand, perceived role enactment is predicted to have a greater influence on attributions for actors than their partners. Nevertheless, all of these attributions are still expected to follow the proposed set of expectancy-based attributional principles involving the dimensions of consistency and distinctiveness.

Actor-Observer Differences: Evaluative Factors

As noted earlier, the existence of interdependent behavior in sexual interactions makes evaluative factors in attribution formation particularly important and perhaps more influential than cognitive factors. Several theorists have, in passing, discussed the influence of the observer's values on attributions (e.g., Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1971). For instance, Jones and Davis' (1965) notions of hedonic relevance and personalism relate to this issue. These concepts refer to the extent to which the observer is directly affected by the target's actions. Their theoretical formulation suggests that the more the target's actions directly benefit the observer, the more positive the target will be evaluated. With regard to motivational attributions, this simple proposition suggests that the more a behavior is desired by the observer, the more positive the inferred intent of the target will be; whereas the less it is

desired, the less positive the inferred intent of the target will be. This notion is similar to the one proposed earlier, though this proposition emphasizes the observer's attributions.

Kelley (1971) proposed a more dynamic formulation of these motivational factors in person perception. His notion of ego-enhancing attributions is that in interdependent interactions, the observer tends to attribute to him/herself those actions of the actor that are consistent with his/her own interests. On the other hand, defensive attributions occur when the actions of the target are inconsistent with the observer's interests. In this case, the attributions are expected to tend toward more internal factors. Kelley (1971) cited several experimental investigations which appear to support his hypotheses.

Together, these ideas suggest an interesting proposition regarding attributional processes in dyadic interactions. Specifically, it is hypothesized that the more a behavior is valued and desired by the target's partner (i.e., the observer), the more its enactment will be attributed to positive interpersonal motivations (i.e., ego-enhancing attributions). On the other hand, the less it is valued and desired, the more its enactment will be attributed to negative intrapersonal motivations (i.e., defensive attributions). With regards to sexual interactions, this proposition suggests that the more the observer wants his/her partner to enact a particular sexual role, the more the observer will attribute its enactment positive interpersonal motivations, such as the expression of love

and affection, and less to intrapersonal motivations, such as inner needs. On the other hand, the less the observer wants his/her partner to enact a particular sexual role, the more the observer will attribute its enactment to negative intrapersonal motivations, such as sexual and emotional inadequacies, and less to interpersonal motivations, such as the expression of love or hatred.

Ego-enhancing and defensive attributions may also be assumed to exist for the actor in the dyad. Thus, it is hypothesized that the more a behavior is valued and desired by the target (i.e., actor), the more its enactment will be attributed to positive motivations (interpersonal and/or intrapersonal). On the other hand, the less it is valued and desired, the more its enactment will be attributed to external or temporary motivations. In effect, these propositions suggest that actors' and observers' attributions for the target's behaviors are influenced somewhat differently by their personal values in order to maximize personal self-esteem. Thus, in sexual interactions, actors are expected to attribute personally valued behaviors to positive interpersonal and intrapersonal motivations, whereas their partners are expected to attribute the actors' behaviors which they value more to positive interpersonal motivations and less to intrapersonal motivations. Thus, even when target behaviors are equally valued by both partners, attributional conflicts are predicted such that observers attribute the actors' behaviors more to positive interpersonal factors and less to intrapersonal factors than the actors do.

Nevertheless, consistent with the earlier proposition, a general trend toward positively valued motivations is expected for the enactment of positively valued behaviors.

With regards to negatively valued behaviors, these principles imply that actors tend to attribute less valued behaviors to external and temporary factors, whereas their partners tend to attribute the actors' behaviors to more negative intrapersonal motivations. Thus, again, attributional conflicts are predicted even when there are no value conflicts. In this case, observers are likely to attribute these negatively valued behaviors more to negative intrapersonal factors and less to external and situational factors than the actors do. Obviously, when value conflicts are also present, even greater attributional conflicts are expected.

Although there is not much evidence available regarding these propositions, findings from a preliminary study by Orvis, Kelley, and Butler (1976) on attributional conflicts in young couples support the existence of ego-defensive attributional processes in ongoing relationships. Thus, partners enacting the targeted behaviors (negatively valued, in general) typically attributed these behaviors to temporary or external causes as well as their positive outcomes and intrinsic desirability. Their partners, however, generally attributed the same behaviors to more stable and negative intrapersonal factors. Unfortunately, this study only examined instances of attributional conflicts reported by one partner. In addition, although the targeted behaviors

were generally negatively valued from a social point of view, no measure of values was used. Nevertheless, these findings support the existence of motivated perception in intimate interactions involving the maintenance of self-esteem and resulting in attributional conflicts between partners.

It is interesting to note that these findings are also predicted by Jones and Davis' formulation concerning actor-observer differences. A critical difference, however, is that the proposition developed here is based upon a motivational model of attributions. As a result, the similarity in predictions exists only for negatively valued behaviors. Quite different results are predicted when behaviors are positively valued, as suggested above. On the other hand, the entire set of predictions concerning actor-observer attributional differences derived from the above proposition is similar to those made when considering the influence of value conflicts on perceived behavioral conflicts and, thus, on attributional conflicts. A critical difference between them, however, involves the proposed processes which underly these attributional conflicts. The earlier proposition using the model's basic pathways assumes that value and perceived behavioral conflicts produce these attributional conflicts. The moderating effect proposed above, on the other hand, does not assume that value or perceived behavioral conflicts are involved. Rather, it suggests that there are differences between actors and observers in how values influence attribution formation. As a result, attributional conflicts are predicted even when no value or perceived behavioral

conflicts exist. Both actors and observers, however, are assumed to be motivated by the same need to maintain personal self-esteem. In the model of sexual interactions, this proposition implies an interactional effect between the perspective of the perceiver and personal values in the determination of motivational attributions.

Application of the Model

Tables 1-2 summarize the set of general predictions derived from the theoretical model, moderating influences on the model, and role and attributional principles developed in this analysis of dyadic sexual interactions. (These predictions assume an ongoing sexual relationship; some of the paths may be different for stranger situations.) Although some of these predictions are more central to the basic model, predictions derived from all hypotheses proposed in the paper are included. These tables contain three types of predictions. First, simple bivariate relationships are specified between the variables across the top of the tables and those down the left columns. For binary variables, such as sex of target, the nature of the relationship is represented by a "greater than" symbol. For continuous variables, influence is represented by an arrow symbolizing the direction of the relationship. Second, direct paths of influence (solid lines) are distinguished from indirect pathways (broken lines). Third, moderating influences on the model are represented by the letter M indicating an interactional effect. The group for which the

Table 1

General Predictions: Active Sexual Role Enactment

Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy (consistency)
Normative expectancy (consistency)	males > females (5-9)	--	
Normative expectancy (distinctiveness)	females > males (39-47)	--	--
Personal preference (consistency)	males ⩾ females (9-12)	observers > actors (12-14)	↑ (9-12)
Perceived role enactment (consistency)	males ⩾ females (4-9)	actors ⩾ observers (16-17)	↑ (5-9,16-17)
Perceived role enactment (distinctiveness)	females ⩾ males (4-5,38-40)	--	--
Stability of attribution	males ⩾ females (28-31)	actors ⩾ observers (50-54)	↑ (28-31,40-47) M: ↑ (observers) (64-67)
Internality of attribution	males ⩾ females (36-38,43-47)	actors ⩾ observers (67-72)	--
Positivity of attribution	--	observers ⩾ actors (50-54)	--

Table 1 (Continued)

Normative expectancy (distinctiveness)	Personal preference (consistency)	Perceived role enactment (consistency)	Perceived role enactment (distinctiveness)
--			
--	↓ (14-16) ↑ (9-12,17)		
↑ (5-9)	--	--	
--	⇣ (47-51)	↑ (35-42) M: ↑ (actors) (64-67)	--
⇣ (44-47) M: ↓ (males, observers) (61-67)	M: ↓ (observers) (67-72)	--	↓ (35-42) M: ↓ (females, actors) (61-67)
--	↑ (47-51,67-72)	--	--

Table 2

General Predictions: Limit-Setting Role Enactment

Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy (consistency)
Normative expectancy (consistency)	females > males (5-9)	--	
Normative expectancy (distinctiveness)	males > females (39-47)	--	--
Personal preference (consistency)	females > males (9-12)	actors > observers (12-14)	↑ (9-12)
Perceived role enactment (consistency)	females > males (4-9)	observers > actors (16-17)	↑ (5-9,16-17)
Perceived role enactment (distinctivenss)	males > females (4-5,38-40)	--	--
Stability of attribution	females > males (28-31)	observers > actors (50-54)	↑ (28-31,40-47) M: ↑ (females, observers) (61-67)
Internality of attribution	females > males (36-38,44-47)	observers > actors (67-72)	--
Positivity of attribution	--	actors > observers (50-54)	--

Table 2 (Continued)

Normative expectancy (distinctiveness)	Personal preference (consistency)	Perceived role enactment (consistency)	Perceived role enactment (distinctiveness)
--			
--	↓ (14-16) ↑ (9-12,17)		
↑ (5-9,16-17)	--	--	
--	⇣ (47-51)	↑ (35-42) M: ↑ (actors, males) (60-67)	--
⇣ (44-48) M: ↓ (observers) (61-67)	M: ↓ (observers) (67-72)	--	↓ (35-42) M: ↓ (actors) (64-67)
--	↑ (47-51,67-72)	--	--

relationship is hypothesized to be stronger is noted in the parentheses. Where opposing influences are predicted, no prediction of the overall effect is made. The section of the text which addresses each prediction is indicated by the page number(s) in parentheses. Only personal preferences regarding behavioral consistency have been considered in this paper and therefore are the only ones included in these tables. It should be noted, however, that preferences regarding behavioral distinctiveness are interesting and may be quite important in sexual interactions. In addition, since actual sexual role enactment is not included in the model, several of its hypothesized determinants are represented as direct effects on perceived role enactment in these tables.

CHAPTER II

METHODS

Overview

The purpose of this study is threefold: (a) to test the general utility and tenability of the proposed model of perceived sexual role enactment and motivational attributions in dyadic interactions; (b) to test the specific predictions derived from the hypothesized relationships between variables in the model; and (c) to test the proposed moderating influences on the model. For this purpose, a set of multivariate analyses were performed using a data-set previously collected by the author from a large sample of young married couples who completed the Sexual Role Interaction Inventory (SRII - Form 1, Crain, 1976).

The SRII is a useful dual perspective clinical and research instrument for the assessment of a couple's sexual interactions along the dimensions of sexual role behaviors and correspondent beliefs, values, attributions, satisfactions, and dysfunctions. Thus, it provides a good source for many of the variables used in the model and related principles. However, since the data were collected prior to the development of the specific model and principles to be examined, this study is considered

to be preliminary. Replication, with possible methodological revision, will be needed in order to support the study's findings. Nevertheless, this study not only provides a useful preliminary test of the proposed model and principles, but also serves as an example for future studies.

Data-Set

The sections of the SRII used in this study are included in Appendix A. Details of the methods involved in the development of the SRII and collection of the data used in this study can be found in the author's Major Area Paper (Crain, 1976) and are only summarized below.

Subjects and Procedures

For subject recruitment, all of the available couples in the married student housing complex at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and the one at Duke University were contacted by phone during the summer of 1976. The study was described as a questionnaire study of sexual interactions in married couples in which both partners would be asked to independently complete an identical questionnaire that would require from one to two hours of their time. Only couples who met the following criteria were considered eligible for participation:

1. Both partners must be currently living together.
2. They must be married for at least six months.
3. If either partner was born in a foreign country, he/she must have lived in this country for at least six years.

Of the 238 prospective couples reached by phone, 140 couples initially responded positively. The SRII was administered to these couples using three methods in order to maximize cooperation from the prospective subjects: (a) in a group testing setting (50%), (b) in their own apartment with the author present (22%), and (c) alone in their own apartment (28%). Of the 140 couples who participated, 113 couples actually completed the SRII.

The data for this study consisted of the SRII responses from these 113 couples. The couples had been married from 6 months to 13 years with a mean length of 3.2 years. The ages of the husbands ranged from 20 to 36 years with a mean age of 25.5 years, while their wives' ages ranged from 19 to 35 years with a mean age of 24.4 years. The majority of the couples had no children and earned under $10,000 per year. The modal husband was a student in graduate school, while the modal wife was a college graduate and either employed or a homemaker. In general, these couples engaged in sexual activity from twice per month to five times per week with a modal frequency of three times per week. Nearly all of the subjects were Caucasian and born and raised in this country.

Construction of the Variables

The SRII is a dual perspective questionnaire, that is, each partner is asked to answer all questions in reference to both him/herself and his/her partner as target (i.e., actor and participant-observer conditions). Thus, all questions are completely crossed with sex of target

and sex of perceiver. For each of these two conditions, the respondent (i.e., perceiver) is asked to answer sets of questions concerning the target's enactment of sexual role behaviors. Two behaviors of interest for this study are sexual initiation, representing the active role, and sexual rejection, representing the limit-setting role. All of the variables from the model (except for those involving distinctiveness information) can be constructed from each set of questions. Perceived active sexual role enactment (along the consistency dimension) is measured by several questions concerning the proportion of initiation attempts in the relationship typically made by the target. Perceived limit-setting sexual role enactment (along the consistency dimension) is measured by similar questions concerning the proportion of initiation attempts made by the target's partner which are typically rejected by the target. Personal preference for each of these roles is measured by questions concerning the perceiver's preference regarding the target's pattern of sexual role enactment. Normative expectancy (along the consistency dimension) is measured by questions concerning the perceiver's belief about the typical enactment pattern of each sexual role by persons of the target's sex and marital status. Finally, motivational attributions are measured by a series of questions concerning the perceived causes of the target's sexual behavior for each role.

The construction of the attribution variables took several steps. First, a series of questions concerning possible causes of a variety of

sexual behaviors was developed from an examination of relevant clinical and popular literature and included in the SRII. After the data were collected from the subjects, separate cluster analyses were performed on the attribution items for each sexual behavior using Johnson's (1967) hierarchical clustering max method in order to statistically determine a set of homogeneous groups of items (Peay, 1975). An attempt was made to include items in clusters which went together in similar ways for both targets and perceivers of each sex. This procedure produced two sets of attribution variables which were reliable and conceptually meaningful for all conditions, one for sexual initiation and the other for sexual rejection.

The attribution variables for sexual initiation used in this study were:

1. Inner need: These items ask the extent to which sexual initiation is attributed to the target's own sexual needs.
2. For relationship: These items ask the extent to which sexual initiation is attributed to the target's desire or need to please and impress his/her partner or to benefit the relationship, in general.
3. Expression of love: These items ask the extent to which sexual initiation is attributed to the target's love and affection for his/her partner.
4. Duty/pressure: These items ask the extent to which sexual initiation is attributed to the target's obligation(s) to his/her partner or the partner's pressure and insistence.

5. Positive feelings: These items ask the extent to which sexual initiation is attributed to the target's good feelings about him/herself and/or his/her partner in the particular situation.

The attribution variables for sexual rejection used in this study were:

1. Inner need: These items ask the extent to which sexual rejection is attributed to the target's personal needs.

2. For relationship: These items ask the extent to which sexual rejection is attributed to the target's need or desire to feel close to his/her partner on an emotional level or to benefit their relationship, in general.

3. Worry/fatigue: These items ask the extent to which sexual rejection is attributed to the target's physical discomfort, fatigue, or worry about non-sexual matters.

4. Anger: These items ask the extent to which sexual rejection is attributed to the target's anger or resentment toward his/her partner.

5. Inadequacy: These items ask the extent to which sexual rejection is attributed to the person's sexual inadequacy and inhibition.

For this study, each of these variables was formed by averaging the perceiver's responses to these questions within the relevant condition. The specific items from the SRII used in the construction of these variables, together with their intercorrelations for each variable, are included in Appendix B.

The final step in the development of the attribution variables was to categorize them using the three attributional dimensions of interest for this study: stability, internality, and positivity. For this purpose, descriptions of both the attributional dimensions and the attribution variables were given to five independent raters. (The raters' instructions are included in Appendix C.) These raters were asked to rate each attribution along each dimension using the following three-point scales: (a) stable = 1, neutral = 2, unstable = 3; (b) intrapersonal (internal) = 1, neutral = 2, interpersonal (external) = 3; and (c) positive = 1, neutral = 2, negative = 3. The final ratings for each attribution variable were considered to be those for which at least three out of five raters agreed. If this criterion was not met for a particular variable, the variable was considered to be too unreliable to test that dimension. This procedure resulted in the attributional categorization represented in Table 3. Since it was hypothesized that the internality dimension is used only for stable attributions, this dimension is noted only in parentheses for all unstable attributions. The number of raters (out of five) endorsing the agreed-upon dimension is also noted in parentheses for all reliable attribution dimensions.

Specific Predictions

Tables 4-5 summarize the set of specific predictions for this study. The form of these predictions is generally the same as those made in

Table 3

Attributional Categories for Each Attribution Variable

	Attribution dimensions		
	Stable-unstable	Intra-interpersonal	Positive-negative
Initiation attributions			
Inner need	Stable (4)	Intrapersonal (5)	Neutral (3)
For relationship	(Unreliable)	(Interpersonal) (4)	Positive (3)
Expression of love	Stable (3)	Interpersonal (5)	Positive (5)
Duty/pressure	Unstable (5)	(Interpersonal) (5)	Negative (3)
Positive feelings	Unstable (5)	Neutral (3)	Positive (5)
Rejection attributions			
Inner need	Unstable (4)	(Intrapersonal) (5)	Neutral (5)
For relationship	Unstable (4)	(Interpersonal) (5)	Neutral (3)
Worry/fatigue	Unstable (5)	(Intrapersonal) (5)	Neutral (4)
Anger	Unstable (4)	(Interpersonal) (5)	(Unreliable)
Inadequacy	Stable (5)	Intrapersonal (4)	Negative (4)

Table 4

Specific Predictions: Sexual Initiation

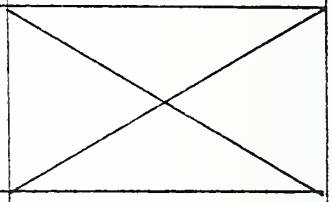
Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy
Normative expectancy	males > females	--	
Personal preference	males > females	observers > actors	↑
Perceived role enactment	males > females	actors > observers	↑
Inner need (SI)	males > females	actors > observers	⇡ M: ↑ (observers)
For relationship (P)	--	observers > actors	--
Expression of love (SEP)	males > females females > males	actors > observers observers > actors	⇡ M: ↑ (observers)
Duty/pressure (UN)	females > males	observers > actors actors > observers	⇣ M: ↓ (observers)
Positive feelings (UP)	females > males	observers > actors	⇣ M: ↓ (observers)

Table 4 (Continued)

Personal preference	Perceived role enactment
↓ ↑	
⇣ M: ↓ (observers)	↑ M: ↑ (actors)
↑	--
⇣ ↑ M: ↑ (observers)	↑ M: ↑ (actors)
⇡ ↓	↓ M: ↓ (actors)
⇡ ↑	↓ M: ↓ (actors)

Table 5

Specific Predictions: Sexual Rejection

Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy
Normative expectancy	females > males	--	
Personal preference	females >> males	actors > observers	↑
Perceived role enactment	females >> males	observers >> actors	↑
Inner need (U)	males >> females	actors >> observers	⇣ M: ↓ (females, observers)
For relationship (U)	males >> females	actors >> observers	⇣ M: ↓ (females, observers)
Worry/fatigue (U)	males >> females	actors >> observers	⇣ M: ↓ (females, observers)
Anger (U)	males >> females	actors >> observers	⇣ M: ↓ (females, observers)
Inadequacy (SIN)	females >> males	observers >> actors	⇡ M: ↑ (females, observers)

Table 5 (Continued)

Personal preference	Perceived role enactment
↑ ↓	
↑	↓ M: ↓ (males, observers)
↑	↓ M: ↓ (males, observers)
↑	↓ M: ↓ (males, observers)
↑	↓ M: ↓ (males, observers)
↓ ↓	↑ M: ↑ (males, observers)

Tables 1-2. However, normative expectancy, personal preference, and perceived role enactment are measured only for the consistency dimension in this study. The predictions for the attribution variables are made for attribution variables considering only those dimensions for which the particular attribution was rated as reliably representing that dimension (i. e., not neutral). These dimensions are noted in parentheses for each attribution using the following code: stable = S, unstable = U, intrapersonal (internal) = I, interpersonal (external) = E, positive = P, and negative = N. Again, no prediction is made for the overall effect of opposing influences.

Regression and Path Analyses

This set of predictions specifies both correlational (bivariate) and multivariate (path of influence) issues. A useful statistical method for the simultaneous examination of both of these issues is path analysis. Path analysis was developed as a method for studying the direct and indirect effects of variables taken as causes of variables taken as effects (Wright, 1934, 1960). Thus, path analysis is an important analytic tool for testing a causal model formulated on the basis of knowledge and theoretical considerations. Through its application, it is possible to determine whether or not a pattern of correlations for a set of observations is consistent with a specific theoretical formulation (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973).

Thus, path analysis is an excellent method to test both the set of hypothesized bivariate relationships as well as the causal pathways proposed in the model. In addition, this model is consistent with three important assumptions which underlie the application of path analysis (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973): (a) the relations among the variables are assumed to be linear, additive, and causal; (b) the causal flow is assumed to be unidirectional; and (c) the variables are measured on an interval scale. It is also assumed that the residual variables (E_1-5), that is, the unaccounted for determinants of the variables in the model, are neither correlated among themselves nor with the variables in the model.

What about this assumption

The first step in a path analysis is the calculation of path coefficients. A path coefficient indicates the direct effect of a variable taken as a cause of a variable taken as an effect. The coefficients for paths which are assumed in the model to be entirely indirect are set equal to zero. The remaining path coefficients can be calculated by an ordinary least squares solution for standardized regression coefficients ($\underline{B}$s). A series of regression analyses can be done for this purpose. At each stage, a variable taken as a dependent variable is regressed on the variables upon which it is assumed in the proposed model to directly depend. Once these variables have been entered into the regression equation, the variables which were assumed to be indirect causal factors can then be added with lower-order ones entered before higher-order ones. If this latter set of variables does not contribute further to the variance of the

dependent variable, the assumption that their influence is indirect is supported. However, if they do add significantly to the equation, one or more of these variables are considered to have direct influence in addition to those initially hypothesized to be direct determinants. As a result, the model would have to be revised to include these direct paths of influence. This revised model can then be examined by a final series of regression analyses in which only the independent variables from these equations which entered with significant regression coefficients ($p < .05$) are entered. The Bs from each of these analyses become the path coefficients for the paths leading from the particular set of independent variables to the dependent variable under consideration. In this way the path coefficients for all indirect and noncausal relationships are assumed to be zero.

One of the advantages of path analysis is that it permits the decomposition of the total covariation between pairs of variables, represented by simple r, into three components. First, the direct effect, which is the causal impact of one variable upon another when no other variables in the system intervene between them, is estimated by the path coefficient itself. Second, the indirect effect, which is the effect of one variable upon another when one or more specified variables intervene, can be calculated by summing the products of the path coefficients for each mediator pathway. The total causal effect of the independent variable upon the dependent variable is reflected in the sum of the direct and the

indirect effects. Finally, the noncausal, or spurious, component of each relationship can be calculated by summing the products of the path coefficients for pathways involving higher order causal factors upon which both of the variables depend.

The sum of direct, indirect, and noncausal components for each bivariate relationship represents the total covariation implied by the revised model. The difference between this estimation and the actual covariance, or simple r, is the amount of correlation unaccounted for by this model. If it is possible to reproduce the original correlations, or to closely approximate them, the conclusion is that this model is consistent with the data. If, on the other hand, there are large discrepancies between the original correlations and the reproduced ones (i.e., error term), the conclusion is that in the light of the relationships among the variables, this model is not tenable. Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) have recommended that this error term be less than .05. The model emerging from this procedure can then be compared to the proposed model in order to assess the latter's tenability. Obviously, if the two models significantly differ from each other, replication is particularly important in order to support the tenability of the new model.

The method of path analysis is not directly applicable to testing moderating or interaction effects since they violate the assumption of linearity. For this purpose, the following procedure can be used. Each interaction effect of interest can be coded as a third independent variable,

a score defined for each case by the product of the two original variables (Saunders, 1956). These variables can then be tested as a third set of independent variables in the preliminary regression analyses after their linear components have already been entered into the equation (Cohen, 1968). If an interaction is significant, the separate correlations between the dependent variable and the independent variable for each group can be examined in order to determine the specific nature of the interaction.

Following these procedures, a preliminary set of regression analyses were performed for each of the two sexual roles. In each regression, variables assumed in the model to be direct determinants of the criterion were entered in step 1. Variables assumed to be indirect determinants were then added in steps 2 and 2A. Terms representing the interaction between each exogenous variable (i. e., sex of target, sex of perceiver, actor-observer) and each endogenous variable were finally added in step 3.

I. Dependent variable: Normative expectancy

Independent variables:

Step 1. Sex of target

Step 2. Sex of perceiver

Actor-observer

II. Dependent variable: Personal preference

Independent variables:

Step 1. Sex of perceiver

Actor-observer

Normative expectancy

Step 2. Sex of target

Step 3. Sex of target x Normative expectancy

Sex of perceiver x Normative expectancy

Actor-observer x Normative expectancy

III. Dependent variable: Perceived role enactment

Independent variables:

Step 1. Normative expectancy

Personal preference

Step 2. Actor-observer

Sex of perceiver

Sex of target

Step 3. Sex of target x Normative expectancy

Sex of target x Personal preference

Sex of perceiver x Normative expectancy

Sex of perceiver x Personal preference

Actor-observer x Normative expectancy

Actor-observer x Personal preference

IV- Dependent variable: Each motivational attribution

VIII. Independent variables:

Step 1. Perceived role enactment

Personal preference

Step 2. Normative expectancy

Step 2A. Sex of perceiver

Sex of target

Actor-observer

Step 4. Sex of target x Normative expectancy

Sex of target x Personal preference

Sex of target x Perceived role enactment

Sex of perceiver x Normative expectancy

Sex of perceiver x Personal preference

Sex of perceiver x Perceived role enactment

Actor-observer x Normative expectancy

Actor-observer x Personal preference

Actor-observer x Perceived role enactment

Since the data for these analyses were obtained from 113 couples and each couple was given scores for all dependent variables under each of four conditions (i.e., sex of target crossed with sex of perceiver), a total of 452 scores for each dependent variable was used in these regressions.

A final set of regression analyses were then done for each role

including only those independent variables which entered the equation with a significant regression coefficient. Each regression coefficient calculated in these final analyses was used as the path coefficient for the path between the particular independent and dependent variables. Path coefficients for the effects of all residual causes of the dependent variables were then calculated as the square root of the proportion of their variance left unaccounted for ($1-\underline{R}^2$). Using these path coefficients, each bivariate relationship was then decomposed into causal and noncausal components. Error terms were then examined in order to test the tenability of the revised model. Finally, for each significant interaction, the separate correlations between the independent and dependent variable for each group were calculated in order to determine the nature of the interaction.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Sexual Initiation

Preliminary Regression Analyses

The results of the preliminary set of eight stepwise regression analyses on the sexual initiation data are presented in Table 6. At each step, the multiple correlation between the dependent variable and the independent variables entered at that step (R), the percentage of the variance of the dependent variable uniquely accounted for by this set of independent variables ($\Delta R^2 \times 100$), as well as their significance as tested by an F ratio are listed. In addition, the standardized regression coefficient (B) and its significance as tested by an F ratio are included for each independent variable at the step it enters into the equation. The linear determinants for each dependent variable are described below. Separate sections will be devoted to the path analysis and the interaction effects.

Normative Expectancy

As predicted, sex of target entered as a significant determinant of normative expectancy, accounting for more than 53% of its variance. The sign of the regression coefficient indicates that normative expec-

Table 6

Preliminary Regression Analyses: Sexual Initiation

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
I.	Dependent variable Normative expectancy				
	Step 1 variable	.73	53.2		512.45**
	Sex-target			.73	512.45**
	Step 2 variables	.74	1.0		3.90*
	Sex-perceiver			-.02	.56
	Actor-observer			-.07	5.36*
II.	Dependent variable Personal preference				
	Step 1 variables	.44	20.0		36.94**
	Sex-perceiver			-.03	.44
	Actor-observer			.20	21.59**
	Norm-expect			.41	94.83**
	Step 2 variables	.45	--		2.97
	Sex-target			.11	2.97
	Step 3 variables	.47	1.5		2.65*
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			.90	6.18*
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.32	1.34
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.04	.03

Table 6 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
III. Dependent variable: Perceived role enactment				
Step 1 variables	.69	45.7		189.26**
Preference			.19	25.62**
Norm-expect			.58	231.34**
Step 2 variables	.77	13.3		48.23**
Actor-observer			-.05	2.60
Sex-perceiver			.01	.13
Sex-target			.53	143.65**
Step 3 variables	.78	1.0		2.13*
Sex-target x Norm-expect			.32	1.45
Sex-target x Preference			.21	.77
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.02	.01
Sex-perceiver x Preference			.39	3.80*
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			.26	1.69
Actor-observer x Preference			.46	3.85*

Table 6 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
IV. Dependent variable				
Inner need				
Step 1 variables	.45	20.3		57.28**
Role-enact			.49	111.86**
Preference			-.14	8.81**
Step 2 variables	.45	--		.60
Norm-expect			.04	.60
Step 2A variables	.47	1.4		2.66*
Sex-perceiver			-.11	6.52*
Sex-target			.02	.13
Actor-observer			.05	1.19
Step 3 variables	.54	7.8		5.37**
Sex-target x Norm-expect			.09	.06
Sex-target x Preference			.09	.06
Sex-target x Role-enact			-2.10	36.88**
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			- .19	.43
Sex-perceiver x Preference			- .42	2.17
Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.34	1.54
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			.23	.68
Actor-observer x Preference			- .60	3.44
Actor-observer x Role-enact			.04	.02

Table 6 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
V. Dependent variable For relationship				
Step 1 variables	.07	--		1.07
Role-enact			.07	2.06
Preference			-.04	.74
Step 2 variables	.07	--		.14
Norm-expect			-.02	.14
Step 2A variables	.11	--		1.05
Sex-perceiver			-.08	3.26
Sex-target			.01	.03
Actor-observer			.01	.07
Step 3 variables	.27	6.8		3.02**
Sex-target x Norm-expect			-.34	.65
Sex-target x Preference			.21	.28
Sex-target x Role-enact			-1.80	20.45**
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.23	.50
Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.02	.00
Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.16	.25
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.24	.56
Actor-observer x Preference			-.04	.01
Actor-observer x Role-enact			.23	.57

Table 6 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VI.	Dependent variable				
	Expression of love				
	Step 1 variables	.10	1.0		3.14*
	Role-enact			.08	3.86*
	Preference			.03	.40
	Step 2 variables	.11	--		1.06
	Norm-expect			-.06	1.06
	Step 2A variables	.17	1.9		4.58**
	Sex-perceiver			-.13	7.88**
	Sex-target			-.06	.62
	Actor-observer			.01	.04
	Step 3 variables	.32	7.3		3.94**
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			.59	2.02
	Sex-target x Preference			-.04	.01
	Sex-target x Role-enact			-2.25	33.12**
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.24	.55
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.09	.07
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.08	.06
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.03	.01
	Actor-observer x Preference			.34	.85
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			-.10	.12

Table 6 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VII.	Dependent variable Duty/pressure				
	Step 1 variables	.39	15.4		40.76**
	Role-enact			-.43	81.32**
	Preference			.16	11.51**
	Step 2 variables	.39	--		.16
	Norm-expect			-.02	.16
	Step 2A variables	.44	3.5		9.25**
	Sex-perceiver			.19	19.28**
	Sex-target			-.01	.01
	Actor-observer			-.02	.22
	Step 3 variables	.49	5.1		3.25**
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			-.94	5.97*
	Sex-target x Preference			-.38	1.14
	Sex-target x Role-enact			1.76	23.95**
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.31	1.08
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			.16	.30
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			-.10	.14
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.18	.40
	Actor-observer x Preference			.19	.32
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			.18	.45

Table 6 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VIII.	Dependent variable Positive feelings				
	Step 1 variables	.37	14.0		36.58**
	Role-enact			-.40	68.54**
	Preference			.07	2.37
	Step 2 variables	.37	--		.02
	Norm-expect			.01	.02
	Step 2A variables	.40	1.6		2.81*
	Sex-perceiver			.08	3.88*
	Sex-target			-.15	4.39*
	Actor-observer			-.02	.18
	Step 3 variables	.40	--		.46
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			-.40	1.00
	Sex-target x Preference			.02	.00
	Sex-target x Role-enact			.14	.14
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.18	.34
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.06	.04
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.17	.32
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			.40	1.73
	Actor-observer x Preference			.25	.51
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			-.24	.72

[a]Significance was first determined for the group of variables entered at each step. The individual variables of each group were examined for significance only if the overall group was significant.

*$p < .05$.

**$p < .01$.

tancies were higher for male targets than for female targets. Unexpectedly, actor-observer also entered significantly although it accounted for only an additional 1% of the variance of the dependent variable. Specifically, actors tended to report higher normative expectancies for their own active role enactment than their partners did.

Personal Preference

Only the primary set of variables entered the regression equation significantly, accounting for 20% of the variance of personal preference. As proposed in the model, normative expectancy was the most important determinant of personal preference and was positively related to it. Also as predicted, an actor-observer effect was found such that subjects tended to have higher personal preferences for their partner's active role enactment than they had for themselves.

Perceived Role Enactment

By themselves, normative expectancy and personal preference accounted for over 45% of the variance of perceived active role enactment and were both positively related to it, as predicted. In addition, sex of target unexpectedly entered the regression equation significantly, adding another 13% to the variance of perceived role enactment. Male targets were reported to enact this role more often than female targets.

Attribution of Inner Need

The primary set of variables accounted for over 20% of the variance

of this dependent variable. Specifically, increases in perceived active role enactment and decreases in personal preference were related to greater attributions of personal need, as predicted. In addition, sex of perceiver unexpectedly entered the regression equation significantly, although it only added another 1-2% of the variance. Females tended to attribute sexual initiation more to need than males did.

Attribution of For Relationship

None of the proposed direct or indirect determinants of this attribution entered the regression equation significantly.

Attribution of Expression of Love

Of the primary set of independent variables, only perceived active role enactment entered the regression equation significantly. It was positively related to this attribution, as predicted, but accounted for only 1% of its variance. In addition, sex of perceiver unexpectedly added nearly 2% to the variance of the dependent variable. Females tended to attribute sexual initiation more to the expression of love than males did.

Attribution of Duty and Pressure

Both of the primary independent variables entered the regression equation significantly, accounting for over 15% of the attribution's variance. Specifically, increases in perceived active role enactment and decreases in personal preference were related to greater attributions of duty and pressure, as predicted. In addition, sex of perceiver added

over 3% to the variance of the dependent variable such that males tended to attribute sexual initiation more to duty and pressure than females did.

Attribution of Positive Feelings

Perceived active role enactment accounted for 14% of this attribution such that increased role enactment was related to a decrease in the attribution of situational feelings, as predicted. In addition, sex of target and sex of perceiver unexpectedly added another 1-2% to the variance of the dependent variable. The females' sexual advances tended to be attributed more to positive feelings than the males' advances. Also, males tended to attribute sexual initiation, in general, more to positive feelings than females did.

Final Regression Analyses

The results of the final set of eight regression analyses on the sexual initiation data are presented in Table 7. The specific independent variables included in these analyses were simply those found to be significant in the preliminary analyses. Since those results were presented in the last section and these are important only as they apply to the path analyses described below, they are not elaborated upon at this point.

Path Analysis

The regression coefficients (Bs) calculated in the analyses presented in Table 7 were used as the path coefficients for the path analysis. Figure 13 depicts the revised model with all significant direct paths and

Table 7

Final Regression Analyses: Sexual Initiation

		R	Variance accounted for (%)	B	F
I.	Dependent variable Normative expectancy				
	All variables entered	.73	53.8		261.41**
	Sex-target			.73	516.96**
	Actor-observer			-.07	5.38*
II.	Dependent variable Personal preference				
	All variables entered	.44	19.8		55.27**
	Actor-observer			.20	21.60**
	Norm-expect			.41	95.31**
III.	Dependent variable Perceived role enactment				
	All variables entered	.77	58.8		195.83**
	Sex-target			.53	142.03**
	Preference			.15	21.60**
	Norm-expect			.20	20.12**
IV.	Dependent variable Inner need				
	All variables entered	.46	21.5		40.84**
	Sex-perceiver			-.11	6.55*
	Role-enact			.49	114.14**
	Preference			-.14	9.54**
V.	Dependent variable Expression of love				
	All variables entered	.16	2.4		5.81**
	Sex-perceiver			-.13	7.97**
	Role-enact			.08	3.90*

Table 7 (continued)

		R	Variance accounted for (%)	B	F
VI.	Dependent variable For relationship				
	No variables entered				
VII.	Dependent variable Duty/pressure				
	All variables entered	.43	18.9		34.76**
	Sex-perceiver			.19	19.42**
	Role-enact			-.44	86.01**
	Preference			.17	13.24**
VIII.	Dependent variable Positive feelings				
	All variables entered	.38	14.8		28.84**
	Sex-perceiver			.08	3.98*
	Sex-target			-.11	3.85*
	Role-enact			-.29	20.28**

*$p < .05$.

**$p < .01$.

their respective coefficients noted. Path coefficients for the effects of the latent variables (i.e., all residual causes) are also included. For the sake of relative simplicity, indirect effects are not denoted in this figure but will be described below.

The completeness of each relevant subsystem of the model can be assessed by examining the square of the path coefficients from the latent variables. This examination reveals that 46% of the variance of normative expectancy and perceived active role enactment and 81% of the variance of personal preference remain unexplained by the causal relations explicitly included in the model. The completeness of the model for motivational attributions is generally lower. Specifically, 79% of the variance of inner need, 81% of the variance of duty/pressure, 85% of the variance of positive feelings, 98% of the variance of expression of love, and 100% of the variance of for relationship remain unexplained by the model.

Finally, the total covariation for each pair of variables in the model, represented by the simple correlation (r), was decomposed into direct causal (DC), indirect causal (IC), and noncausal (NC) components, as shown in Table 8. The difference between the sum of these coefficients and the actual correlation for each bivariate relationship represents the error in the model in accounting for the total covariation. An examination of the error terms in Table 8 reveals that all simple correlations are estimated within .05 (taking rounding errors into consideration)

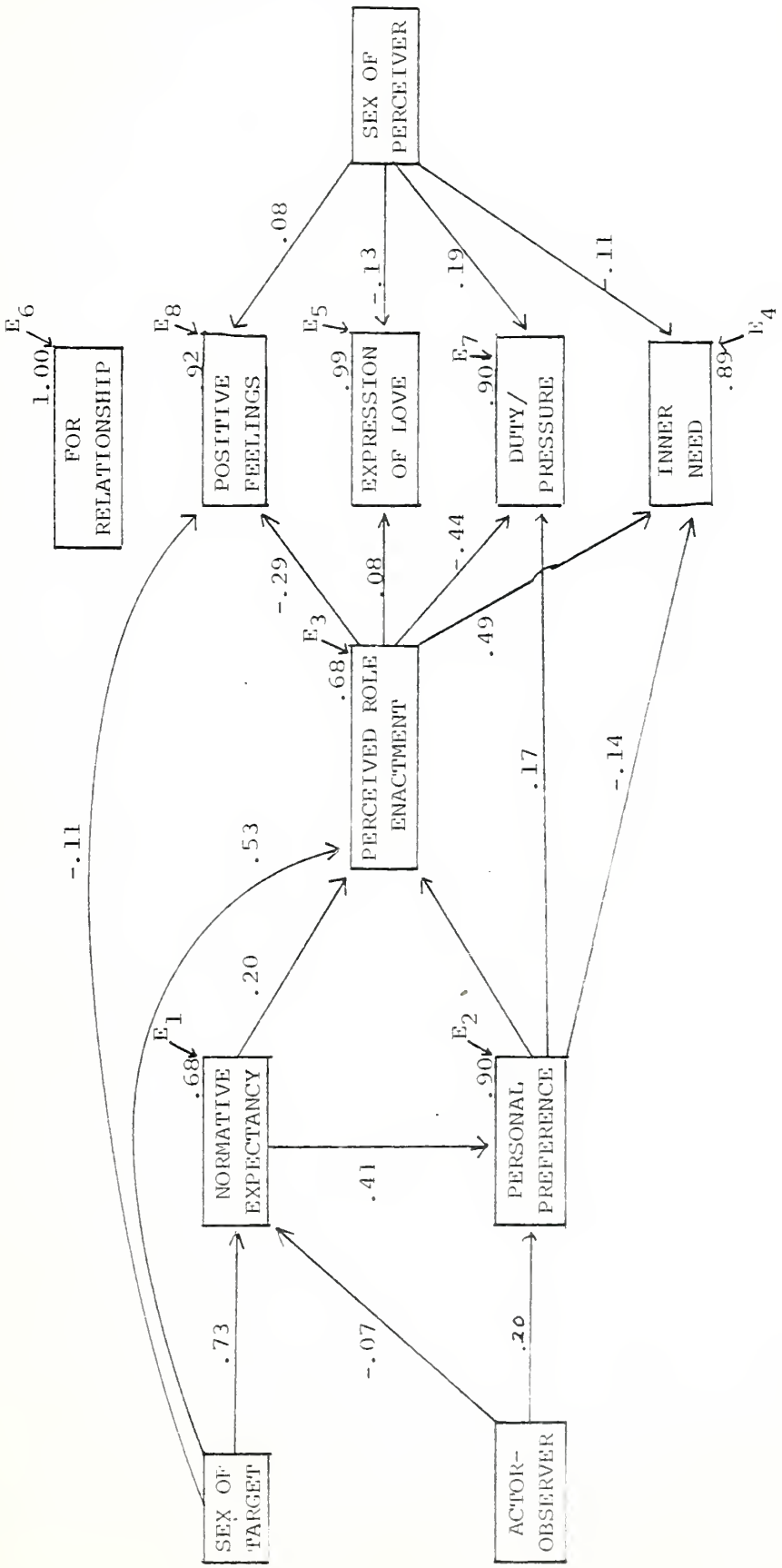


Figure 13. Path coefficients for model using sexual initiation data. All nonsignificant paths have been excluded from this figure and only direct paths are explicitly represented. In addition, paths from all residual causes are noted by the symbol E.

Table 8

Decomposition of Bivariate Relationships: Sexual Initiation

Bivariate relationship	Total covariance[a]	Causal components			Noncausal component	Error term
		Direct	Indirect	Total		
(Sex-target) (Norm-expect)	.73	.73	.00	.73	.00	.00
(Sex-target) (Preference)	.35	.00	.30	.30	.00	.05
(Sex-target) (Role-enact)	.73	.53	.20	.73	.00	.00
(Sex-target) (Need)	.33	.00	.32	.32	.00	.02
(Sex-target) (Relationship)	(.04)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04
(Sex-target) (Express-love)	(.02)	.00	.06	.06	.00	.04
(Sex-target) (Duty)	-.27	.00	-.26	-.26	.00	.00
(Sex-target) (Pos-feelings)	-.32	-.11	-.21	-.32	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Norm-expect)	(-.02)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02
(Sex-perceiver) (Preference)	(-.04)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04
(Sex-perceiver) (Role-enact)	(-.00)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Need)	-.10	-.11	.00	-.11	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Relationship)	-.08	.00	.00	.00	.00	.08
(Sex-perceiver) (Express-love)	-.13	-.13	.00	-.13	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Duty)	.18	.19	.00	.19	.00	.01
(Sex-perceiver) (Pos-feelings)	.08	.08	.00	.08	.00	.00
(Actor-observer) (Norm-expect)	-.08	-.07	.00	-.07	.00	.00
(Actor-observer) (Preference)	.16	.20	-.03	.17	.00	.00
(Actor-observer) (Role-enact)	(-.04)	.00	.01	.01	.00	.05
(Actor-observer) (Need)	(-.00)	.00	-.02	-.02	.00	.02
(Actor-observer) (Relationship)	(.00)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
(Actor-observer) (Express-love)	(.01)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01

(Actor-observer) (Duty)	(.03)	.00	.02	.02	.00	.01
(Actor-observer) (Pos-feelings)	(.00)	.00	-.00	-.00	.00	.01
(Norm-expect) (Preference)	.40	.41	.00	.41	-.02	.00
(Norm-expect) (Role-enact)	.65	.20	.06	.27	.38	.00
(Norm-expect) (Need)	.29	.00	.07	.07	.18	.04
(Norm-expect) (Relationship)	(.02)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02
(Norm-expect) (Express-love)	(.02)	.00	.02	.02	.01	.01
(Norm-expect) (Duty)	-.23	.00	-.05	-.05	-.17	.01
(Norm-expect) (Pos-feelings)	-.23	.00	-.08	-.08	-.19	.04
(Preference) (Role-enact)	.42	.15	.00	.15	.24	.03
(Preference) (Need)	(.07)	-.14	.08	-.07	.11	.03
(Preference) (Relationship)	(.01)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
(Preference) (Express-love)	(.06)	.00	.01	.01	.01	.04
(Preference) (Duty)	(-.02)	.17	-.07	.10	-.10	.00
(Preference) (Pos-feelings)	-.09	.00	-.04	-.04	-.09	.04
(Role-enact) (Need)	.43	.49	.00	.49	-.06	.00
(Role-enact) (Relationship)	(.06)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.06
(Role-enact) (Express-love)	.08	.08	.00	.08	.00	.00
(Role-enact) (Duty)	-.36	-.44	.00	-.44	.06	.01
(Role-enact) (Pos-feelings)	-.37	-.29	.00	-.29	-.08	.00

[a]Nonsignificant correlations ($p > .05$) are noted in parentheses.

except for two pairs, both involving the attribution of for relationship. Thus, in general, the revised model, as represented in Figure 13, accounts for nearly all of the covariation among the variables involving sexual initiation.

Determinants of Perceived Role Enactment

An examination of the decomposed bivariate relationships in Table 8 reveals the nature of the causal paths of influence in the model. As predicted, sex of target was a powerful determinant of normative expectancy (DC = .73) which, in turn, had a direct effect on perceived active role enactment (DC = .20). However, contrary to predictions, a significant proportion of the covariation between normative expectancy and perceived role enactment (simple r = .65) was spurious (NC = .38) due to the direct effect of sex of target on perceived role enactment (DC = .53). In other words, the effect of sex of target on perceived role enactment was only partially mediated by normative expectancy (IC = .20).

Similarly, over half of the influence of personal preference on perceived role enactment (simple r = .42) was spurious (NC = .24) due to their mutual dependence on sex of target and normative expectancy. In contrast, the influence of sex of target on personal preference (simple r = .35) was essentially mediated by normative expectancy (IC = .30), as predicted. Also, as expected, observers had higher personal preferences for sexual initiation than actors (DC = .20), while they had lower normative expectancies (DC = -.07).

Determinants of Motivational Attributions

As predicted, perceived role enactment was the primary direct determinant of motivational attributions and was generally found to mediate the influence of sex of target on them. In particular, greater perceived role enactment was found to increase the stable attribution of inner need (DC = .49), thereby mediating nearly all of the influence of sex of target (IC = .32). Similarly, greater perceived role enactment was found to decrease the unstable attributions of duty and pressure (DC = -.44) and positive feelings (-.29), again mediating most of the influence of sex of target (IC = -.26 and -.21, respectively). However, sex of target was also found to have a small direct effect on positive feelings as well (DC = -.11). Perceived role enactment also had a small direct effect on the expression of love (DC = .08), though no indirect sex of target effect was found.

Also, as predicted, personal preference was found to have a significant direct effect on several of the motivational attributions. Specifically, greater personal preference produced higher attributions of duty and pressure (DC = .17) and lower attributions of inner need (DC = -.14). It is interesting to note that each of these relationships had indirect and noncausal components in the direction opposite to their direct effect, thereby negating the direct effect and producing insignificant overall correlations.

Finally, several sex of perceiver effects were found. Specifically,

males made more unstable attributions of duty and pressure (DC = .19) and positive feelings (DC = .08), while females made more stable attributions of the expression of love (DC = -.13) and inner need (DC = -.11).

No significant determinants of the attribution of for relationship were found in the path analysis.

Interaction Effects

Interaction terms were tested as the final variables added to the preliminary regression analyses after their linear components were entered, as shown in Table 6. Most of the significant interactions were unexpected and involved sex of target as the moderator, particularly with regard to the effect of perceived active role enactment on the motivational attributions. For instance, while increased perceived role enactment was strongly related to greater attributions of inner need and lower attributions of duty and pressure for female targets (simple $\underline{r}$ = .50 and -.42, respectively), no significant relationship was found for male targets (simple $\underline{r}$ = .01 and -.05, respectively). Even more striking, while increased perceived role enactment was clearly related to higher attributions of the expression of love and for relationship for female targets (simple $\underline{r}$ = .35 and .28, respectively), it was related to lower attributions of these motivational attributions for male targets (simple $\underline{r}$ = -.17 and -.20, respectively).

Sex of target was also found to moderate the effect of normative expectancy on the dependent variables. First, normative expectancy was

found to have a direct inverse effect on attributions of duty and pressure for male targets, but not for female targets (simple r = -.12 and .00, respectively). Second, the influence of normative expectancy on personal preference was stronger for male targets than for female targets (simple r = .33 and .10, respectively).

Finally, the perspective of the perceiver was found to moderate the effect of personal preference on perceived role enactment. Specifically, personal preference was more related to perceived role enactment for observers and female perceivers (simple r = .57 and .37, respectively) than for actors and male perceivers (simple r = .37 and .26, respectively). A further breakdown of these correlations into the four different perspective groups reveals that together these effects produced a considerably stronger relationship between personal preference and perceived role enactment for females rating their partners (simple r = .54) than for any of the other three perspectives (simple r = .14, .16, .16).

Sexual Rejection

Preliminary Regression Analyses

The results of the preliminary set of eight stepwise regression analyses on the sexual rejection data are presented in Table 9. The linear determinants for each dependent variable are described below. Separate sections are devoted to the path analysis and the interaction effects.

Table 9

Preliminary Regression Analyses: Sexual Rejection

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
I. Dependent variable: Normative expectancy				
Step 1 variable	.18	3.4		14.95**
Sex-target			-.18	14.95**
Step 2 variables	.20	--		1.33
Sex-perceiver			-.08	2.69
Actor-observer			.03	.35
II. Dependent variable: Personal preference				
Step 1 variables	.34	11.7		18.71**
Sex-perceiver			-.03	.49
Actor-observer			-.09	3.99*
Norm-expect			.33	51.69**
Step 2 variables	.34	--		1.01
Sex-target			-.05	1.01
Step 3 variables	.35	--		.16
Sex-target x Norm-expect			-.06	.11
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.11	.35
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.04	.04

Table 9 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
III. Dependent variable: Perceived role enactment				
Step 1 variables	.55	29.8		90.54**
Preference			.43	98.36**
Norm-expect			.23	28.38**
Step 2 variables	.58	3.8		8.07**
Actor-observer			.03	.47
Sex-perceiver			.09	4.96*
Sex-target			-.17	18.46**
Step 3 variables	.59	--		1.50
Sex-target x Norm-expect			-.20	1.50
Sex-target x Preference			.35	6.10
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.08	.22
Sex-perceiver x Preference			.05	.15
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			.26	2.20
Actor-observer x Preference			-.09	.39

Table 9 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
IV.	Dependent variable				
	Inner need				
	Step 1 variables	.20	4.2		9.25**
	Role-enact			.10	3.90*
	Preference			.14	6.06*
	Step 2 variables	.21	--		1.67
	Norm-expect			.07	1.67
	Step 2A variables	.22	--		.44
	Sex-perceiver			-.04	.82
	Sex-target			-.02	.27
	Actor-observer			-.00	.00
	Step 3 variables	.25	--		.78
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			.21	1.13
	Sex-target x Preference			.14	.51
	Sex-target x Role-enact			.02	.01
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.27	1.68
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			.06	.09
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.05	.05
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.27	1.50
	Actor-observer x Preference			-.02	.02
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			-.06	.08

Table 9 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
V. Dependent variable				
Worry/fatigue				
Step 1 variables	.16	2.6		5.65**
Role-enact			.18	10.51**
Preference			-.13	5.76*
Step 2 variables	.19	1.0		4.42*
Norm-expect			.11	4.42*
Step 2A variables	.28	4.0		6.09**
Sex-perceiver			-.17	13.16**
Sex-target			-.11	4.78*
Actor-observer			-.03	.51
Step 3 variables	.31	2.3		2.07*
Sex-target x Norm-expect			.11	.32
Sex-target x Preference			-.20	1.03
Sex-target x Role-enact			.00	.00
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.12	.35
Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.03	.02
Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			.36	3.87*
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			.08	.12
Actor-observer x Preference			.22	1.22
Actor-observer x Role-enact			-.54	5.82*

Table 9 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VI.	Dependent variable				
	Anger				
	Step 1 variables	.12	1.5		3.84*
	Role-enact			.14	6.21*
	Preference			-.10	3.91*
	Step 2 variables	.12	--		.14
	Norm-expect			.02	.14
	Step 2A variables	.13	--		.29
	Sex-perceiver			.03	.34
	Sex-target			-.02	.24
	Actor-observer			-.03	.35
	Step 3 variables	.20	--		1.07
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			.01	.00
	Sex-target x Preference			.14	.51
	Sex-target x Role-enact			-.38	3.10
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.09	.18
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.19	.90
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			-.15	.44
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.30	1.79
	Actor-observer x Preference			-.07	.12
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			.13	.34

Table 9 (continued)

	R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VII. Dependent variable For relationship				
Step 1 variables	.19	3.7		8.16**
Role-enact			.06	1.37
Preference			.15	7.61**
Step 2 variables	.20	--		.68
Norm-expect			.04	.68
Step 2A variables	.20	--		.29
Sex-perceiver			.01	.07
Sex-target			.02	.24
Actor-observer			-.04	.62
Step 3 variables	.32	6.3		3.22**
Sex-target x Norm-expect			.33	2.86
Sex-target x Preference			-.15	.58
Sex-target x Role-enact			-.36	3.01
Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			-.54	7.20**
Sex-perceiver x Preference			.09	.24
Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			-.34	2.29
Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.60	7.73**
Actor-observer x Preference			-.16	.68
Actor-observer x Role-enact			.35	2.47

Table 9 (continued)

		R	Variance added (%)	Entry B	Entry F[a]
VIII.	Dependent variable Inadequacy				
	Step 1 variables	.43	18.2		47.34**
	Role-enact			.48	90.45**
	Preference			-.15	8.95**
	Step 2 variables	.43	--		.80
	Norm-expect			-.04	.80
	Step 2A variables	.44	1.2		3.10*
	Sex-perceiver			.02	.27
	Sex-target			-.03	.38
	Actor-observer			-.10	5.50*
	Step 3 variables	.46	--		.69
	Sex-target x Norm-expect			.03	.03
	Sex-target x Preference			-.19	1.07
	Sex-target x Role-enact			-.05	.08
	Sex-perceiver x Norm-expect			.18	.86
	Sex-perceiver x Preference			-.08	.20
	Sex-perceiver x Role-enact			-.09	.18
	Actor-observer x Norm-expect			-.19	.88
	Actor-observer x Preference			-.13	.53
	Actor-observer x Role-enact			.04	.04

[a]Significance was first determined for the group of variables entered at each step. The individual variables of each group were examined for significance only if the overall group was significant.

*$p < .05$.

**$p < .01$.

Normative Expectancy

As predicted, sex of target was the only significant determinant of normative expectancy, though it only accounted for 3-4% of its variance. Specifically, normative expectancies were higher for female targets than for male targets.

Personal Preference

Only the primary set of independent variables entered the regression equation significantly, accounting for almost 12% of the variance of personal preference. As proposed in the model, normative expectancy was the most important determinant of personal preference and was positively related to it. Also, as predicted, individuals tended to have higher personal preferences for their own limit-setting role enactment than they had for their partners (i.e., actor-observer effect).

Perceived Role Enactment

By themselves, normative expectancy and personal preference accounted for almost 30% of the variance of perceived limit-setting sexual role enactment and were both positively related to it. However, as with active role enactment, the influence of sex of target was not entirely accounted for by these mediating variables and it entered the regression equation significantly, though it added only a few percent to the variance of perceived role enactment. As expected, females were seen to reject their partner's sexual advances more often than males. In addition,

males unexpectedly tended to report higher levels of limit-setting role enactment than females did (i.e., sex of perceiver effect).

Attribution of Inner Need

As predicted, perceived role enactment and personal preference were the significant determinants of inner need, though they only accounted for a little over 4% of its variance. Contrary to predictions, both variables were positively related to this attribution.

Attribution of Worry and Fatigue

Similarly, perceived role enactment and personal preference entered significantly into the regression equation, accounting for less than 3% of the variance of this attribution. Contrary to predictions, perceived role enactment was positively related to increases in worry and fatigue, while personal preference was negatively related to it. In addition, sex of target and normative expectancy unexpectedly accounted for a unique proportion of the variance of the dependent variable. Specifically, increases in normative expectancy were related to greater attributions of worry and fatigue. In addition, the females' sexual rejection was attributed more to worry and fatigue than the males'. Finally, females tended to report more attributions of worry and fatigue than males did (i.e., sex of perceiver effect).

Attribution of Anger

As with worry and fatigue, increases in the attribution of anger

were related to increases in perceived role enactment and decreases in personal preference. However, these determinants accounted for less than 2% of the variance of this attribution. No other independent variables were significant in this regression analysis.

Attribution of For Relationship

Personal preference was the only variable to enter this regression significantly and accounted for just under 4% of the variance of this attribution. Increases in personal preference were related to greater attributions of for relationship, as predicted.

Attribution of Inadequacy

As predicted, perceived role enactment and personal preference were the two primary determinants of this attribution, accounting for over 18% of its variance. As predicted, increases in perceived role enactment and decreases in personal preference were related to greater attributions of sexual inadequacy. In addition, actors tended to make higher attributions of inadequacy for their own role enactment than their partners did.

Final Regression Analyses

The results of the final set of eight regression analyses on the sexual rejection data are presented in Table 10. The specific independent variables included in these analyses were simply those found to be significant in the preliminary analyses. Since those results were presented in

Table 10

Final Regression Analyses: Sexual Rejection

		R	Variance accounted for (%)	B	F
I.	Dependent variable Normative expectancy				
	All variables entered	.18	3.4		14.95**
	Sex-target			-.18	14.95**
II.	Dependent variable Personal preference				
	All variables entered	.34	11.6		27.86**
	Actor-observer			-.09	3.91*
	Norm-expect			.33	52.87**
III.	Dependent variable Perceived role enactment				
	All variables entered	.58	33.6		53.52**
	Sex-perceiver			.09	4.98*
	Sex-target			-.17	18.51**
	Preference			.42	100.41**
	Norm-expect			.21	23.39**
IV.	Dependent variable Inner need				
	All variables entered	.20	4.2		9.25**
	Role-enact			.10	3.90*
	Preference			.14	6.06*
V.	Dependent variable Worry/fatigue				
	All variables entered	.28	7.8		7.98**
	Sex-perceiver			-.17	13.16**
	Sex-target			-.11	4.78*
	Role-enact			.15	6.57*
	Preference			-.17	9.14**
	Norm-expect			.08	3.86*

Table 10 (continued)

		R	Variance accounted for (%)	B	F
VI.	Dependent variable Anger				
	All variables entered	.12	1.5		3.84*
	Role-enact			.14	6.21*
	Preference			-.10	3.91*
VII.	Dependent variable For relationship				
	All variables entered	.18	3.4		14.94**
	Preference			.18	14.94**
VIII.	Dependent variable Inadequacy				
	All variables entered	.44	19.3		33.81*
	Actor-observer			-.11	5.72*
	Role-enact			.49	93.42**
	Preference			-.16	10.32**

*$p < .05$.

**$p < .01$.

the last section and these are important only as they apply to the path analysis described below, they are not elaborated upon at this point.

Path Analysis

The regression coefficients (Bs) calculated in the analyses presented in Table 10 were used as the path coefficients for the path analysis. Figure 14 depicts the model with all significant paths and their respective coefficients noted. Path coefficients for the effects of latent variables (i.e., all residual causes) are also included in this figure.

The completeness of each relevant subsystem of the model can be assessed by examining the square of the path coefficients from the latent variables. This examination reveals that 96% of the variance of normative expectancy, 81% of the variance of personal preference, and 67% of the variance of perceived limit-setting role enactment remain unexplained by the causal relations explicitly included in the model. The completeness of the model for motivational attributions is similarly low. Specifically, 96% of the variance of inner need and for relationship, 92% of the variance of worry and fatigue, 98% of the variance of anger, and 81% of the variance of inadequacy remain unexplained by the model.

Finally, the total covariation for each pair of variables in the model, represented by the simple correlation (r) was decomposed into direct causal (DC), indirect causal (IC), and noncausal (NC) components as shown in Table 11. The difference between the sum of these coefficients and the actual correlation for each bivariate relationship represents the

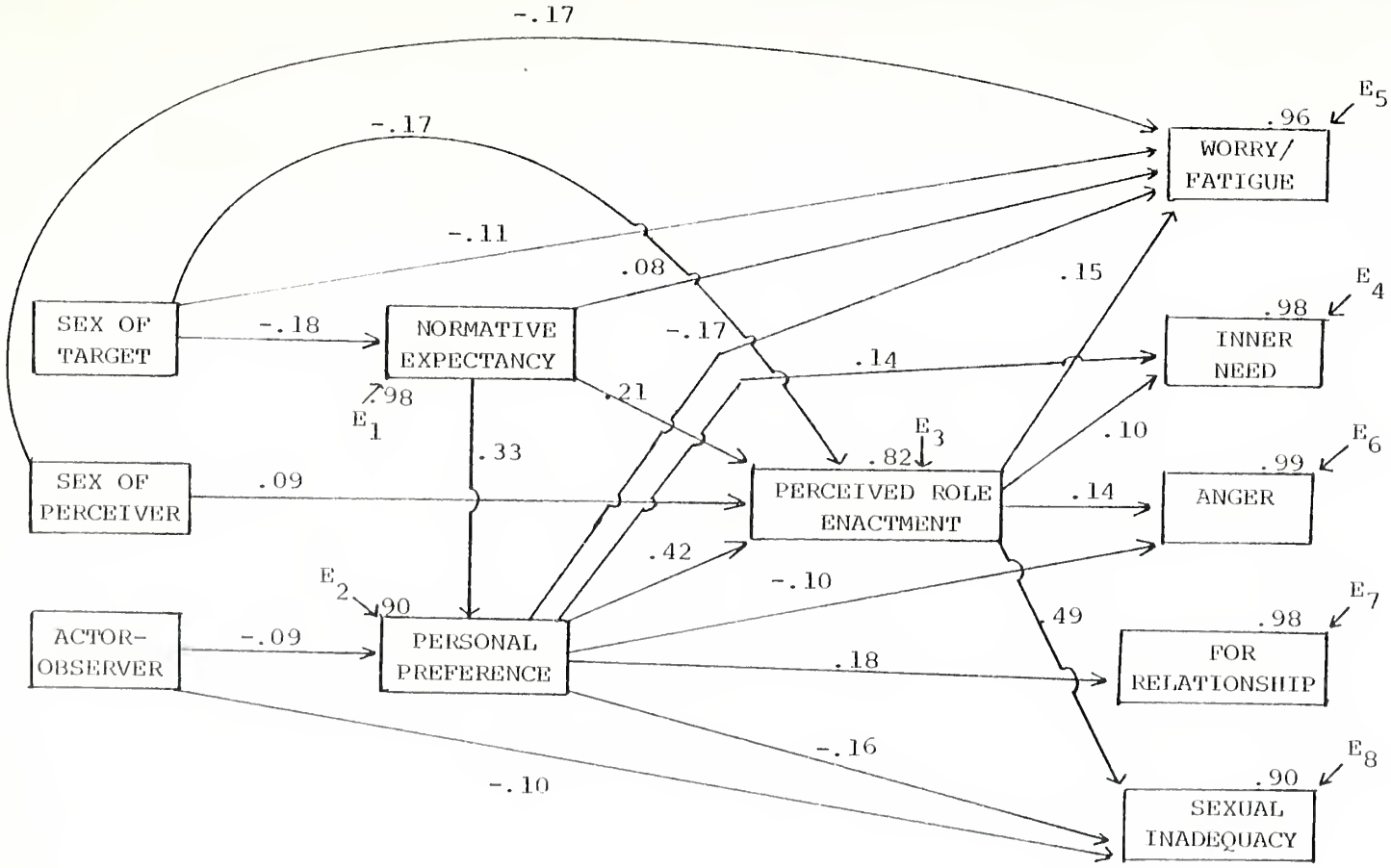


Figure 14. Path coefficients for model using sexual rejection data. All nonsignificant paths have been excluded from this figure and only direct paths are explicity represented. In addition, paths from all residual causes are noted by the symbol E.

Table 11

Decomposition of Bivariate Relationships: Sexual Rejection

Bivariate relationship	Total covariance[a]	Causal components			Noncausal component	Error term
		Direct	Indirect	Total		
(Sex-target) (Norm-expect)	-.18	-.18	.00	-.18	.00	.00
(Sex-target) (Preference)	-.10	.00	-.06	-.06	.00	.04
(Sex-target) (Role-enact)	-.26	-.17	-.06	-.24	.00	.02
(Sex-target) (Need)	(-.07)	.00	-.03	-.03	.00	.04
(Sex-target) (Relationship)	(-.01)	.00	-.01	-.01	.00	.00
(Sex-target) (Worry)	-.14	-.11	-.01	-.12	.00	.02
(Sex-target) (Anger)	(-.05)	.00	-.03	-.03	.00	.02
(Sex-target) (Inadequacy)	-.13	.00	-.11	-.11	.00	.02
(Sex-perceiver) (Norm-expect)	(-.08)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.08
(Sex-perceiver) (Preference)	(-.06)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.06
(Sex-perceiver) (Role-enact)	(.05)	.09	.00	.09	.00	.04
(Sex-perceiver) (Need)	(-.04)	.00	.01	.01	.00	.05
(Sex-perceiver) (Relationship)	(.00)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Worry)	-.16	-.17	.01	-.16	.00	.00
(Sex-perceiver) (Anger)	(.04)	.00	.01	.01	.00	.03
(Sex-perceiver) (Inadequacy)	(.06)	.00	.04	.04	.00	.01
(Actor-observer) (Norm-expect)	(.03)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.03
(Actor-observer) (Preference)	(-.08)	-.09	.00	-.09	.00	.01
(Actor-observer) (Role-enact)	(.00)	.00	-.04	-.04	.00	.04
(Actor-observer) (Need)	(-.01)	.00	-.02	-.02	.00	.01
(Actor-observer) (Relationship)	(-.05)	.00	-.02	-.02	.00	.03
(Actor-observer) (Worry)	(-.02)	.00	.01	.01	.00	.03

(Actor-observer) (Anger)	(-.02)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02
(Actor-observer) (Inadequacy)	-.09	-.10	-.00	-.11	.00	.02
(Norm-expect) (Preference)	.33	.33	.00	.33	.00	.00
(Norm-expect) (Role-enact)	.37	.21	.14	.34	.03	.01
(Norm-expect) (Need)	.14	.00	.09	.09	.00	.05
(Norm-expect) (Relationship)	.11	.00	.06	.06	.00	.05
(Norm-expect) (Worry)	.11	.08	.00	.08	.02	.01
(Norm-expect) (Anger)	(.03)	.00	.01	.01	.00	.02
(Norm-expect) (Inadequacy)	.09	.00	.12	.12	.02	.04
(Preference) (Role-enact)	.50	.42	.00	.42	.07	.01
(Preference) (Need)	.18	.14	.04	.18	.01	.00
(Preference) (Relationship)	.18	.18	.00	.18	.00	.00
(Preference) (Worry)	(-.04)	-.17	.06	-.07	.05	.02
(Preference) (Anger)	(-.03)	-.10	.06	-.04	.01	.00
(Preference) (Inadequacy)	.09	-.16	.20	.04	.05	.00
(Role-enact) (Need)	.17	.10	.00	.10	.07	.00
(Role-enact) (Relationship)	.14	.00	.00	.00	.09	.05
(Role-enact) (Worry)	.11	.15	.00	.15	.00	.03
(Role-enact) (Anger)	.09	.14	.00	.14	-.06	.00
(Role-enact) (Inadequacy)	.41	.49	.00	.49	-.08	.00

[a]Nonsignificant simple correlations ($p > .05$) are noted in parentheses.

error in the model in accounting for the total covariation. An examination of the error terms in Table 11 reveals that all correlations can be estimated within .05 (considering rounding errors) except for two pairs, both involving small sex of perceiver effects. Thus, in general, the model, as represented in Figure 14, accounts for nearly all of the covariation among the variables.

Determinants of Perceived Role Enactment

An examination of the decomposed bivariate relationships in Table 11 reveals the nature of the causal paths of influence in the model. As predicted, sex of target was a direct determinant of normative expectancy (DC = -.18) which, in turn, had a direct effect on perceived limit-setting role enactment (DC = .21). However, as with sexual initiation, the effect of sex of target on perceived role enactment (simple r = -.26) was only partially mediated by normative expectancy and personal preference (IC = -.06) since a significant direct effect was also found (DC = -.17).

In contrast, the influence of sex of target on personal preference (simple r = -.10) was essentially mediated by normative expectancy (IC = -.06), as predicted. Furthermore, personal preference had a particularly large direct effect upon perceived role enactment (DC = .42) with only a small spurious relationship due to their mutual dependence on sex of target and normative expectancy (IC = .07). Also, as predicted, actors had higher personal preferences for their own limit-setting role

enactment than their partners did (DC = -.09). Unexpectedly, males reported more limit-setting role enactment, in general, than females did (DC = .09).

Determinants of Motivational Attributions

As predicted, perceived limit-setting role enactment and personal preference were the primary direct determinants of the motivational attributions. In particular, greater perceived role enactment was found to increase attributions of sexual inadequacy (DC = .49), thereby mediating nearly all of the influence of sex of target (IC = -.11). Similarly, greater role enactment was found to increase attributions of personal need (DC = .10), anger (DC = .14), worry and fatigue (DC = .15). However, contrary to predictions, the effects of sex of target and normative expectancy on worry and fatigue were not mediated since direct relationships were found (DC = -.11 and .08, respectively).

Personal preference was also found to be a significant determinant of all of the motivational attributions. Specifically, higher personal preference was found to directly increase attributions of inner need (DC = .14) and for relationship (DC = .18) and to directly decrease attributions of worry and fatigue (DC = -.17), anger (DC = -.10), and inadequacy (DC = -.16). It is interesting to note, however, that personal preference also had an indirect positive influence on the latter three attributions, thereby reducing the overall correlations. This positive influence was mediated by perceived role enactment.

Finally, two perspective of perceiver effects were found. Specifically, females made more attributions of worry and fatigue than males did (DC = -.17), while actors made more attributions of inadequacy than observers did (DC = -.17).

Interaction Effects

Interaction terms were tested as the final variables added to the preliminary regression analyses, as shown in Table 9. All of the significant interactions involved moderation of the determinants of motivational attributions by the perspective of the perceiver.

First, normative expectancy was found to be positively related to the attribution of for relationship for female perceivers and actors (simple r = .24 and .21, respectively) but not for male perceivers or observers (simple r = -.06 and .00, respectively). A further breakdown of these correlations into the four different perspective groups reveals that together these moderator effects produced the strongest relationship between normative expectancy and for relationship for females making attributions about themselves (simple r = .30), less strong ones for females and males making attributions about the males (simple r = .17 and .10, respectively), and an inverse relationship for males making attributions about their partners (simple r = -.24).

Second, perceived role enactment was found to be positively related to attributions of worry and fatigue for male perceivers and actors (simple r = .20 and .22, respectively), but not for female perceivers or

observers (simple r = .05 and .01, respectively). A further breakdown of these correlations reveals that together these perspective effects produced the strongest relationship between perceived role enactment and worry and fatigue for males making attributions about themselves (simple r = .20), less strong relationships for partners making attributions about the females (both simple r = .15), and an inverse relationship for females making attributions about their partners (simple r = -.13).

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Overview

The findings from this study are highlighted in Table 12 for the active sexual role (initiation) and in Table 13 for the limit-setting sexual role (rejection). A comparison between these tables and the predictions summarized in Tables 4-5 reveals that many of the proposed paths and relationships among the variables were supported by the findings. There were, however, a few notable exceptions involving both disconfirmation and modification of several primary hypotheses as well as some evidence to suggest a few alternative ones.

Thus, several modifications in the explicit causal pathways in the model were suggested by the findings. Given this revision, the model did quite well in accounting for the relationships among the variables in the data for both the active and limit-setting sexual roles. In general, however, the model was more successful in accounting for the determinants of perceived sexual role enactment than for those of the motivational attributions. This was particularly true for active role enactment since over half of its variance was accounted for by a linear combination of the

Table 12

Summary of Findings: Sexual Initiation

Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy
Normative expectancy	males > females	actors > observers	
Personal preference	males >> females	observers > actors	↑ M: ↑ (male target > female target)
Perceived role enactment	males >> females	--	↑ ↑
Inner need (SI)	males > females	females > males	↑
For relationship (P)	--	--	--
Expression of love (SEP)	--	females > males	--
Duty/pressure (UN)	females >> males	males > females	↓ M: ↓ (male target)
Positive feelings (UP)	females >> males	males > females	↓

Table 12 (Continued)

Personal preference	Perceived role enactment
M: ↑ (observer > actor; female perc > male perc	
↓ ↑	↑ M: ↑ (female target)
--	M: ↑ (female target) ↓ (male target)
--	↑ M: ↑ (female target) ↓ (male target)
↑ ↓	↓ M: ↓ (female target)
↓	↓

Table 13

Summary of Findings: Sexual Rejection

Dependent variables	Sex of target	Perspective of perceiver	Normative expectancy
Normative expectancy	females > males	--	
Personal preference	females > males	actors > observers	↑
Perceived role enactment	females >> males	males > females	↑ ⇡
Inner need (U)	--	--	⇡
For relationship (U)	--	--	⇡ M: ↑ (actor; female perc)
Worry/fatigue (U)	females > males	females > males	↑
Anger (U)	--	--	--
Inadequacy (SIN)	--	actors > observers	⇡

Table 13 (Continued)

Personal preference	Perceived role enactment
↑	
↑	↑
↑	--
↓ ↑	↑ M: ↑ (actor; male perc)
↓ ↑	↑
↓ ↑	↑

psychosocial determinants as compared to one-third of the variance of limit-setting role enactment. In contrast, 80% or more of the variance of nearly all of the motivational attributions remained unexplained by a linear combination of the variables in the model. An additional 5 to 10% of the variance, however, was accounted for by interactions between the variables for at least half of the attributions. Nevertheless, this rather striking difference suggests that attributions are more difficult than perceived behavior to explain by psychosocial factors, at least those included in this model.

Determinants of Perceived Role Enactment

Sex Differences

As predicted, the men were the primary initiators of sex while their partners tended to be the limit-setters in the relationship. Thus, not only did the women make less sexual advances, but they also tended to reject a greater proportion of those made by their partner. Therefore, the couples in this sample tended to enact relatively traditional sexual roles, as predicted. This finding is rather striking since the subjects were from a population typically associated with liberal attitudes, that is, they were young, educated, and affiliated with a university.

Normative Beliefs

Also as predicted, both partners tended to believe that men, in general, are the more active initiators in marital relationships.

Similarly, they expected married women to be more passive and to reject their partners' sexual advances more often. These normative expectancies, in turn, were highly related to perceived role enactment. However, only part of this relationship was causal, the remainder being due to their mutual dependence upon the sex of the target. In other words, this sexual role differentiation in the couples was due only in part to the sex-linked beliefs held by the partners. Thus, contrary to the psychosocial hypothesis proposed earlier, partners tended to enact sexual roles, in part, simply because of their sex.

This result is intriguing and warrants further examination. Clearly, the effect of sex was so powerful that normative beliefs could not account for all of it. Although this finding does offer support to the proposition that sexual role differentiation has an important biological component, it could be that the measure of normative expectancy used in this study is not a satisfactory operationalization of the psychological dimension. A more subjective measure than simply the generally expected frequency of the behavior, such as beliefs about role enactment in significant others such as friends and relatives, might be useful for future tests of the model. Alternatively, normative expectancies may operate in more of an "all-or-none" fashion than previously thought. If so, then a simple question concerning whether the particular behavior pattern is in-role or out-of-role for a given set of conditions might be more appropriate. On the other hand, if there is indeed a biological

component to sexual roles, there may be actual differences in sexual motivation between men and women in addition to perceived differences. This implication will be explored further in the discussion on motivational attributions.

Personal Values

Normative expectancies also played a significant role in determining personal preferences. Thus, individuals tended to value what they believed was expected of each of them as a function of their sex. Furthermore, as proposed in the model, these beliefs mediated the entire effect of sex on values. Thus, in general, partners tended to prefer the man to be more active and less rejecting than the woman, not simply because of their sex but because these roles were expected of them. Within the active role, however, the influence of these expectancies on preferences was significantly stronger for male than for female targets. In other words, personal values were less determined by normative beliefs for the woman's active sexual role than for the man's. This finding implies that values regarding how sexually active the woman is in the relationship tend to be determined by other, as of yet, unknown factors and not as "locked" into sex-linked beliefs as values for the man's sexual behavior. Factors such as general sex role orientation and length and type of relationship might be considered as possible determinants of values concerning the woman's sexual role enactment in future research.

Furthermore, personal values were found to have a direct effect on perceived role enactment, as predicted. Thus, in general, the more the particular sexual role was preferred for the target, the more he/she tended to enact it. In fact, the influence of these values was so strong for the limit-setting role that it mediated significant components of the effects of the sex of the target and normative expectancy on perceived role enactment. This finding suggests that sexual rejection tends to be enacted largely because it is seen as desirable, or at least acceptable, and not simply because it is normatively expected. On the other hand, over half of the relationship between personal preference and perceived active role enactment was spurious due to their mutual dependence on the sex of the target and normative expectancy. Thus, these sex-linked factors were more powerful and direct determinants of active than of limit-setting role enactment. Nevertheless, values also influenced active role enactment independent of sex and beliefs, thereby reflecting at least some degree of personal flexibility in active role enactment as well.

Perspective Differences

Within the active sexual role, however, the effect of these values on perceived role enactment was significantly moderated by the perspective of the perceiver. In effect, the woman's preference regarding her partner's rate of sexual advances was clearly more related to his

behavior than his preference was or than either of their preferences related to her behavior. Thus, values may be more important in determining active role enactment than previously thought, but only in this specific way. This finding is intriguing and suggests that women may have greater control in determining the nature of the couple's initiation interactions, or at least their preferences are more apt to be fulfilled. Thus, women may not be as powerless or dissatisfied in the sexual arena as is often argued, especially when considering that in their role as respondent they have the right of refusal as well. Nevertheless, this control appears to consistently involve a relatively passive orientation. This finding also has implications for possible mechanisms maintaining traditional sexual role differentiation, as will be seen below.

The perspective of the perceiver also directly influenced personal preferences. As predicted, individuals tended to prefer greater active sexual role enactment for their partners than their partners preferred for themselves. Similarly, they tended to prefer less limit-setting role enactment for their partners than their partners preferred for themselves. Thus, as suspected, individuals seem to prefer to have their partners take more responsibility for initiating sex, while they would like to reserve the right of refusal more for themselves.

The existence of this actor-observer effect, together with the influence of sex-linked beliefs on personal preferences, offer support for the hypothesized mechanism underlying apparent sex of target differences

in sexual values. For women, the influence of both effects are in the same direction for the active role; that is, they both expect and prefer their partners to be more active in their sexual relationships. For men, on the other hand, the effects influence values in opposing directions; that is, while they also expect traditional role differentiation, they would prefer their partners to be more active. A similar, but weaker process appears to operate for the limit-setting role. Thus, while women both expect and prefer greater limit-setting enactment for themselves, men again expect traditional role differentiation, but would prefer to set limits more often themselves. Thus, together, these effects tend to produce a relatively traditional set of sexual values in women and a more equalitarian set of sexual values in men.

This sex difference in sexual values may have implications for the maintenance of traditional sexual role differentiation. If women tend to have more traditional sexual values than their partners and these values have greater influence on their active role enactment, as these findings would suggest, it is possible that the women's sexual values are responsible, at least in part, for the maintenance of traditional sexual role differentiation despite the men's more equalitarian sexual values. Or, at least, this pattern of findings suggests that women's preferences are more likely to be fulfilled in sexual interactions.

A small, unexpected actor-observer effect was also found for normative expectancies within the active sexual role. Specifically,

individuals tended to have a higher expectancy for active role enactment for themselves than their partners had for them. Although an explanation for this perspective effect is not clear at this point, one implication of it may be that each individual feels more pressure to perform sexually than if he/she held his/her partner's beliefs.

This actor-observer effect on beliefs, together with the one on values, may produce an interesting set of pressures within sexual interactions. While actors tend to have a higher expectancy for their active role enactment than their partners have for them, they also tend to have a lower preference. This pattern suggests that individuals are in the position that although they feel they should be relatively active, they do not particularly want to be. On the other hand, although they would prefer their partners to be more active, they do not expect them to be.

It can be hypothesized that these discrepancies cause at least some degree of distress in the relationship. For instance, they suggest that each individual tends to feel pressured to be active sexually both by societal expectancies and by his/her partner's desires, despite his/her own preference to be more passive. In fact, given the generally greater normative expectancies for men's active role enactment, together with the particularly high correspondence between women's preferences and their partner's role enactment, it would appear that men experience this performance pressure considerably more than women and, as a result, enact a more active sexual role. Unfortunately, there is evidence to

suggest that men become sexually dissatisfied and even dysfunctional when they are active because of these external pressures (Butterfield & Crain, 1978).

Since sexual beliefs and values have direct influences on perceived role enactment, it might be anticipated that these perspective effects would produce indirect biasing influences on an individual's perception of the rate of sexual role enactment. However, findings from this study suggest that these perspective effects on beliefs and values are sufficiently small that no significant indirect influences on perceived role enactment could be measured. Thus, contrary to predictions, although each partner tended to prefer the other to enact a more active sexual role, these values did not seem to significantly affect their estimation of their partner's or their own rate of role enactment.

Furthermore, no direct effect of perspective was found on estimates of active role enactment. On the other hand, a small direct effect of sex of perceiver on limit-setting role enactment was found such that men tended to report higher rates of sexual rejection than their partners reported. Thus, although there was generally fairly good agreement between partners as to the frequency of sexual behaviors in their relationship, at least some systematic influence of perspective does appear to exist. In fact, as will be seen in the next section, there is evidence to suggest that the women in this study tended to feel that the active sexual role was enacted more often than their partners felt, though this

perspective difference only influenced attributions and did not directly affect ratings of actual behavioral frequency. Possible explanations for these interesting sex of perceiver effects will be discussed later in this paper.

Determinants of Motivational Attributions

As hypothesized, perceived role enactment and personal preference were the primary determinants of motivational attributions for both sexual roles. There were, however, several unexpected findings, especially for the limit-setting role. Given potential differences in attribution formation processes between the two roles as well as the general complexity of the relationships among the variables, the determinants of the attributions for the two roles are discussed separately below. In addition, since a considerable proportion of the variance in attributional variables was not accounted for by the psychosocial factors included in the model, these findings should be considered as only a small component of the determinants of motivational attributions in sexual interactions. Additional factors such as length and type of relationship, extent of communication, and possibly other measures of values and attitudes will be important to explore in future research. For instance, as will be seen below, an individual's general attitude toward sexuality and its importance to him/her may significantly alter his/her perceptual-interpretive processes in sexual interactions.

Active Sexual Role

Sex Differences

As predicted, the man's active sexual role behavior tended to be attributed to his sexual needs, while his partner's active role behavior tended to be attributed to her feelings of duty, pressure from him, or to other transient feelings and moods. Thus, the existence of clear sex differences in attributions used to account for the motivations behind active sexual behavior was supported by this study. No simple sex differences were found, however, for the attributions of the expression of love and to benefit the relationship. Given the distinct pattern of results for these interpersonal attributions, they will be discussed separately.

Consistency Information

Target-based expectancies. A large part of this sex difference in motivational attributions was mediated by perceived role enactment (i.e., target-based expectancies), as hypothesized. In general, while increases in perceived role enactment produced greater attributions of sexual need and a small increase in the expression of love, they resulted in decreased attributions of duty, pressure, and situational positive feelings. These findings are entirely consistent with, and offer support for, the proposed attributional rules. Thus, the more consistently the individual tended to make sexual advances in the relationship, the more

he/she was seen as motivated by relatively stable factors, while the less they were made, the more he/she was seen as motivated by relatively unstable factors.

This attributional process, however, was significantly modified by the sex of the target. Specifically, these rules involving the consistency of perceived role enactment were found to account primarily for the attributions made to explain the behavior of women, but not particularly those used to explain the men's behavior. Thus, the more a woman was perceived as making sexual advances in the relationship, the more this behavior was attributed to stable factors such as sexual need and the expression of love and the less it was attributed to relatively unstable factors such as duty, pressure, and other transient feelings. For men, on the other hand, their active sexual behaviors were attributed primarily to stable factors regardless of their perceived sexual role enactment. In other words, no matter how active or passive the man was in the sexual relationship, he tended to be seen as motivated by sexual need and not particularly by duty or pressure. In effect, this attributional process appears to lock the man into a stereotyped image of being driven by sexual needs, regardless of his behavior. On the other hand, changes in the woman's sexual role enactment appear to produce direct alterations in interpretations about her underlying motivation.

Normative expectancies. How then can this sex difference in attribution formation be explained? One possibility is that there is an innate

difference in sexual drive between men and women which is, at least in part, responsible for sexual role differentiation. If so, the unconditional attribution of need for the men's sexual advances may reflect this greater sexual drive rather than simply some form of stereotyping process. Similarly, if the women actually have less sexual drive and, as a result, tend to be more passive, the motivations for their sexual advances and other active sexual behaviors would be unclear except as inferred from their actual behaviors.

An alternative, more psychosocial explanation for these attributional differences requires a consideration of normative role beliefs. It could be hypothesized that since active sexual role enactment is more normatively expected of men than women, that is, it is in-role behavior, individuals tend to preemptively use this belief to make attributions about men, generally ignoring the degree to which their actual behaviors correspond to this expectancy. In other words, stereotyped attributions may be made for a man's sexual advances based upon normative beliefs about men in general rather than by using more target-based information. On the other hand, the behavior would be unexpected of a woman and therefore considered to be out-of-role. In this circumstance, individuals may need to attend to the woman's particular sexual tendencies in order to make attributions for her sexual behavior since normative expectancies only tell them that it was not expected. Thus, in both circumstances, individuals appear to be using the proposed attributional rules except

that the source of the expectancy used to make attributions differs depending on normative beliefs. Specifically, in-role behavior appears to be explained using the normative or category-based expectancies, while out-of-role behavior appears to be explained using target-based expectancies based upon perceived behavioral tendencies.

There was, however, one exception to this general pattern of results which involved the most unstable attribution: transient positive feelings. Even for men, this attribution varied as a function of perceived role enactment. On the other hand, women tended to be seen as motivated by transient positive feelings more than men even when controlling for their rate of perceived role enactment. Thus, a mild degree of stereotyping was found for women and some degree of target-based attribution formation was found for men. Therefore, while in-role behavior may tend to be explained by using normative expectancies and out-of-role behavior by target-based expectancies, this pattern of results suggests that the distinction is not absolute. In other words, both sources of expectancy information may be used, at least to some extent, when attempting to explain either in-role or out-of-role behavior.

Thus, a modification of the simple cognitive operation proposed above appears to be necessary. First, it would appear that not only does in-role behavior tend to be preemptively attributed to a stable factor, but out-of-role behavior tends to be preemptively attributed to an unstable cause as well. Second, target-based expectancies which are clearly

discrepant with normative expectancies tend to be used to modify these preemptive attributions, especially for out-of-role behavior. As a result of this second cognitive operation, sexual advances in a woman with frequent active sexual role enactment tend to be attributed to stable inner needs. On the other hand, sexual advances in a man with infrequent active sexual role enactment tend to be attributed to transient feelings, though he is still likely to be seen as motivated by sexual needs as well.

Therefore, the overall pattern of sex differences in motivational attributions described earlier appears to be determined by a combination of several interrelated cognitive operations. First, men tend to be stereotyped and seen (both by themselves and their partners) as motivated by sexual needs when making sexual advances, regardless of their perceived behavior patterns. Similarly, women's sexual advances tend to be stereotypically attributed to transient feelings regardless of what they actually do. Second, the more sexually active a woman is, the more her advances tend to be attributed to sexual needs and the less they are attributed to duty and fluctuating feelings. On the other hand, while a sexually passive man tends to be seen as motivated by transient feelings, he is still likely to be seen as motivated by sexual needs in spite of his limited behavior.

It is interesting to see what these postulated cognitive operations predict about attributions for individuals who consistently enact role-

deviant behavior patterns. Unless an asymptotic relationship exists between perceived role enactment and the attribution of sexual need for women, the findings suggest that, at some as of yet undetermined point, a very sexually active woman would tend to be seen as motivated more by sexual drives than a man enacting the same set of sexual behaviors. Similarly, unless an asymptotic relationship exists between perceived role enactment and the attribution of transient feelings for men, a very sexually passive man would tend to be seen as motivated more by fluctuating feelings and moods than a woman enacting the same set of sexual behaviors.

If this line of reasoning is correct, these attributional processes may produce a form of contrast effect, suggesting an interesting modification of Jones and Davis' correspondent inference theory (Jones & Davis, 1965). In both formulations, out-of-role behavior is assumed to be generally more salient to the perceiver when making attributions than in-role behavior. The findings from this study, however, suggest that the critical determinant of a contrast effect is not a single instance of out-of-role behavior, but a pattern of behavior (i.e., target-based expectancy) which is markedly discrepant with the normative expectancy. As seen above, this discrepancy could consist of a frequently enacted out-of-role behavior, such as by a very sexually active woman, or an infrequently enacted in-role behavior, such as by a very sexually passive man. Single instances of unexpected behavior, on the other hand, are

seen to be explained away by the perceiver.

It is also interesting to note that since behaviors seem to be explained, in part, by using normative beliefs about role-appropriate behavior, these traditional beliefs and stereotyped attributions would appear to be maintained over time in spite of mild deviations in role enactment. However, since target-based expectancies do appear to be used in the interpretation of role-deviant behavior patterns, some modification of stereotyped beliefs should occur over time if role-deviant behaviors are enacted consistently. This speculation assumes, of course, that attributions eventually have a feedback effect on normative beliefs.

This interpretation of the findings assumes that normative beliefs play a critical part in moderating the influence of perceived role enactment on motivational attributions. Therefore, in future studies, it will be important to more directly test the effect of the interaction between these beliefs and behaviors on motivational attributions. Furthermore, this interpretation assumes that normative beliefs are important determinants of stable attributions when expected behavioral consistency is high (i.e., in-role) and of unstable attributions when expected behavioral consistency is low (i.e., out-of-role). Although this assumption was supported by the findings for attributions of duty and pressure, direct sex of target effects were found for attributions of need and feelings. Although, as suggested earlier, these findings could support

the existence of innate motivational differences between the sexes, it is again possible that they reflect an inadequate operationalization of the psychological dimension of normative expectancy. Future research is obviously needed in order to answer this important question.

Distinctiveness Information

As noted earlier, a different pattern of results was found for the interpersonal attributions of the expression of love and to benefit the relationship. Specifically, a sex of target moderator effect was found such that the more active the women were in their sexual relationship, the more they were seen as motivated by a desire to express love and to benefit the relationship in general; on the other hand, the more active the men were, the less they were seen as motivated by these concerns. This interesting interaction can be interpreted as an indirect effect of the distinctiveness dimension of target-based expectancies. It was assumed earlier, following Kelley's proposition, that distinctiveness is used in making attributions only for relatively frequently enacted (i.e., consistent) behaviors (Kelley, 1967). If so, it would be reasonable to expect that the more often a role is enacted, the more its distinctiveness would influence attributions along the internal-external or intrapersonal-interpersonal dimension. Although the distinctiveness dimension of normative and target-based expectancies was not measured in this study, it was assumed earlier that men are generally expected to be less particular in selecting

the recipient of their sexual advances than women. Following the proposed attributional rules, increases in the frequency of active role enactment should then produce more stable interpersonal attributions for women, but not for men. Assuming that the attribution of for relationship is more reliable in its stability than the pretesting ratings suggested, the attributional pattern found for the expression of love and for relationship is entirely consistent with this formulation.

Unfortunately, it is not clear at this point whether the apparent difference in expectancies responsible for this sex difference in attributions is normative or target-based. Thus, the effect may be due to differences in the distinctiveness of perceived initiation behaviors (i.e., extent to which they are directed toward persons other than one's spouse) or simply to differences in beliefs about men and women, in general. In fact, it could be due to differences in the number of sexual relationships prior to the present one. Only further research will be able to shed light on this issue.

It is interesting to note that the result of this interpretation process appears to be that attributions involving the expression of love and affection tend to be made more when individuals are behaving in ways which are opposite the influence of normative expectancy, that is, they are acting out-of-role. Thus, the more a woman tends to make sexual advances, despite all the psychosocial pressures to be more passive and resistant, the more she tends to be seen as expressing love and affection

to her partner since the advances are apparently perceived as directed specifically toward him. Similarly, the less a man tends to make sexual advances despite all the psychosocial (and possibly biological) pressures to be more active, the more he tends to be seen as expressing love and affection to his partner when he does initiate since the advances are apparently perceived as directed specifically toward her.

This attribution process would appear to be particularly important with regard to sexual and marital satisfaction since it has implications for how much, and in what circumstances, partners tend to feel loved by one another. On a general level, it would seem that there is something particularly desirable about behaviors which are positively valued and are perceived as enacted only toward the specific person. In other words, if the behavior is seen as enacted relatively indiscriminately, it is considered not to be particularly meaningful with regard to the specific recipient of the behavior. The implications of this attribution process for sexual and emotional satisfaction will be discussed in the final section of this paper.

Personal Values

Personal values about active role enactment were also found to have a direct effect on motivational attributions. Specifically, higher preferences directly produced greater attributions of duty and pressure and decreased attributions of need. Although these relationships were pre-

dicted by the proposed influence of values on attributions, they were hypothesized to be mediated by perceived role enactment. Nevertheless, since a particularly stable attribution (need) decreased while a relatively unstable one (duty) increased as a function of higher preferences, these findings imply that, as hypothesized, the higher the preference for the particular behavior, the less it seems to occur.

This attributional pattern lends support to the notion that a frustration may develop when something is strongly desired which appears to influence one's sense of both how often and why it occurs. Although values did not actually influence estimates of the rate of active role enactment, this finding is actually more consistent with the scenario from Annie Hall than the proposed mediation mechanism. Thus, although both partners in the film agreed on the actual frequency of the sexual behavior, they disagreed as to their sense of how often that was, depending on their personal values. It is this more subtle impression of frequency that seems to alter attributions. Other possible instances of this perceptual-interpretative effect of values will be examined in the following discussion of perspective differences.

Perspective Differences

There was an unexpected direct effect of the sex of the perceiver on motivational attributions. Specifically, men tended to make more attributions of duty, pressure, and other temporary feelings than their partners,

while their partners tended to make more attributions of need and the expression of love. This pattern suggests that men were more inclined to make unstable attributions, while women tended to make more stable ones.

It is hypothesized that this perspective difference in the use of attributions is produced by the same set of pathways used to explain the relationship between values and attributions. As indicated earlier, there is considerable evidence to suggest that men in this culture tend to prefer higher rates of sexual relations than their partners. In fact, this sex difference was found in the couples who participated in this study (as reflected in their responses in another section of the SRII). Furthermore, this value conflict would be expected to produce differences in the partners' sense of how often they have sex, as illustrated in the couple in Annie Hall. This difference in perception, then, could account for the attributional conflicts found in this study. Thus, since men generally want sex more often than their partners, they might tend to feel that sexual advances occur less often, thereby producing less stable attributions.

This hypothesized set of causal relations could also explain the sex of perceiver effect found for estimates of the frequency of limit-setting role enactment. In this case, the men's preference for higher rates of sexual relations may be responsible for their tendency to report more sexual rejection, especially since this rejection would reflect their

sense of lower levels of sexual relations. Thus, together, these findings suggest that men tend to feel that sexual advances are made less often and sexual rejection more often than their partners because of their desire to have more frequent sexual relations. This perceptual difference, then, tends to produce attributional conflicts between the partners, as described above. It is not clear at this point why this value conflict appears to have influenced actual behavioral reports of sexual rejection and not for sexual initiation, though it may be related to the greater negative impact of sexual rejection in general. Thus, together these findings offer at least some support for the general formulation that perspective differences lead to value conflicts which tend to produce different perceptions of behavioral consistency which, in turn, can result in attributional conflicts. In addition, it would appear that the greater the frustration resulting from the discrepancy between the individual's preference and the frequency of the behavior, the more likely estimates of actual frequency will be biased.

This perceptual-interpretive process appears to point to one component of the mechanisms underlying the continued bedroom battles between the sexes. In particular, "exaggerating" the extent to which behaviors occur that are not especially desired and "minimizing" the extent to which desired behaviors occur might be expected to lead to increased frustration. For instance, by de-emphasizing the times that his partner makes sexual advances and overemphasizing the extent to

which she rejects his own advances, the man is likely to feel particularly dissatisfied with his partner's role in their sexual interactions. In fact, this problem may be particularly incidious when partners agree on actual behavioral frequency, but differ in their sense of how often that is, especially since the conflict is only indirectly represented in differing attributions made to explain the behaviors. Thus, by minimizing how often his partner makes sexual advances and, as a result, exaggerating how much she is motivated by duty and pressure, the man may end up feeling more guilty, frustrated, and dissatisfied than he would if he simply did not desire his partner to be so active. Similarly, the woman may become unduly upset with her partner if she overemphasizes the extent to which he makes sexual advances, perceiving him as motivated simply to gratify his own sexual needs.

In this light, it is interesting to examine the specific attributional conflicts produced with regard to active sexual role enactment. As indicated above, men tended to emphasize unstable attributions, while women tended to emphasize stable ones. This pattern implies that men emphasized relatively nonstereotyped attributions to explain their own sexual advances such as their duty, partner's pressure, or a particularly good mood. With regard to their partner's sexual advances, however, this attributional tendency appears to have produced relatively stereotyped attributions since transient factors were emphasized. Similarly, women emphasized relatively nonstereotyped attributions to

explain their own sexual advances such as their own sexual needs, whereas the same attributions used to explain their partner's sexual advances are relatively stereotyped. In effect, this attributional pattern suggests that individuals tended to emphasize relatively sex-linked, stereotyped attributions to account for their partner's sexual advances, while they emphasized more varied, androgynous explanations for their own behaviors.

Thus, not only were agreed upon stereotyped attributions made, but there was even greater stereotypy in the attributions made for one's partner. This finding is particularly surprising given the intimate nature of sexual interactions. Moreover, these results offer a more complete picture of the stereotyped attributions described in the sex surveys cited earlier. In particular, this analysis suggests that attributional conflicts exist which result from stereotyped interpretations of one's partner's motives, apparently due to underlying value conflicts, and not to accurate perceptions of the other's faults as is often implied. The implications of these attributional conflicts for interpersonal discord will be examined in the last section of this paper.

Obviously, however, considerably more research will be needed in order to test these hypothesized causal relations. For this purpose, the addition of a measure of preferred frequency of sexual relations and/or a more general measure of sexual values and attitudes will be useful. Also, the development of a more subtle measure of an individual's per-

ception of behavioral consistency will be important.

Limit-Setting Sexual Role

Sex Differences

Contrary to predictions, there were no significant sex of target differences for most of the motivational attributions used to explain sexual rejection. Furthermore, the one significant difference that was found was in the direction opposite to that predicted. Specifically, women's limit-setting role enactment tended to be attributed more to worry or fatigue than the men's. In order to understand these unexpected results, the influence of the model's mediating variables need to be examined.

Target-Based Expectancies

Contrary to the proposed attributional rules, increases in limit-setting role enactment (i.e., target-based expectancy) produced increases in nearly all of the motivational attributions including need, worry, fatigue, anger, and sexual inadequacy. Thus, in contrast to the active sexual role, both unstable and stable attributions were used to explain relatively frequent limit-setting role enactment. One reason for these unexpected results, however, appears to be fairly clear. Many of the subjects in the study reported that the target never rejected the partner's sexual advances and, as a result, they tended to endorse none of the attributions for this role. Therefore, simply enacting this role at all was

likely to produce greater ratings on all motivational attributions.

Due to this limited role enactment, these results do not appear to be an adequate test of the applicability of the proposed attributional rules. On the other hand, the only stable attribution in the entire group for this role, sexual inadequacy, was considerably more related to perceived role enactment than any other attribution. This finding, therefore, offers at least partial support to the proposed rules and their more limited use in the limit-setting role. In addition, it suggests that the more an individual tends to reject his/her partner's sexual advances, the more he/she is seen (and sees him/herself) as sexually inadequate. Thus, it seems fairly clear that sexual rejection is considered a fairly negative behavior with rather undesirable consequences. This negative valuation of this role would also explain the subjects' tendency to use the lower end of the behavioral and attributional ratings. In fact, many of the findings discussed below appear to reflect this undesirable aspect of limit-setting role enactment and the individual's attempts to maintain his/her own and his/her partner's self-esteem.

As seen above, no indirect effects of sex of target on motivational attributions were found. Therefore, although women tended to reject their partner's sexual advances a greater proportion of the time, this sex difference was apparently not strong enough to produce overall attributional differences between men and women enacting this role.

Personal Values

Personal preference had an unexpected direct influence on all motivational attributions for limit-setting role enactment. Specifically, greater preferences for the behavior produced increased attributions of personal need and to benefit the relationship, while it resulted in decreased attributions of worry, fatigue, anger, and sexual inadequacy. In order to understand this attributional pattern, it is first necessary to consider what it means to have relatively high values for sexual rejection. Basically, it would suggest that the individual sees this role as important to either the individual or the relationship despite its typically negative implications. In fact, the only attributions which could be considered "valuable" in this way appear to be the more intentional ones of personal need and to benefit the relationship, precisely the ones which were used by individuals having relatively high preferences for limit-setting role enactment. Thus, when this behavior is felt to be desirable or acceptable individuals tend not to attribute it to the more typical reasons for sexual rejection, such as worry, fatigue, or anger, and turn toward more atypical, though more valued ones, such as to satisfy other needs for oneself or the relationship, in order to justify their behavior. This interpretation of the data suggests that the simple dimension of positive-negative does not appear to fully describe the attributions for limit-setting role enactment and that the more subtle dimension involving positive intentions of the actor might be more useful.

It is interesting to note that the overall relationship between personal preference and the less valued attributions of worry, fatigue, and inadequacy were generally insignificant despite the direct inverse effect described above. This discrepancy was apparently due to an indirect positive effect mediated by perceived role enactment. In other words, the higher the preference, the more the role tended to be enacted and, as a result, all attributions tended to be increased. Thus, two opposing forces involving values appear to operate on these attributions. While increased role enactment tends to generally produce greater use of these less valued attributions, the higher the preference is, the less they end up being made. In other words, the potentially negative inferences made when sexual advances are rejected tend to be reduced to the extent that this role is acceptable to the perceiver. However, due to the particularly strong relationship between limit-setting role enactment and the attribution of sexual inadequacy, this negative trait attribution is likely to be made for relatively frequent sexual rejection, even if the behavior is generally acceptable to the perceiver.

Normative Expectancies

Normative expectancies were found to influence one attribution directly, though the effect was rather small. Specifically, higher normative expectancies were found to produce greater attributions of worry and fatigue. In other words, the more sexual rejection was

expected because of societal norms, the more the behavior tended to be attributed to worry or fatigue. Although the indirect effect of normative beliefs on the attributions is understandable because of their relationship to perceived role enactment, an explanation for this direct effect is not immediately apparent. However, not only was the attribution of worry or fatigue the most common one used by the subjects, it appears to be the most innocuous and transient of the unintentional attributions in terms of its potential implications for either partner. Therefore, it might be reasoned that this attribution tends to be used to explain away this rather aversive behavior when it is believed to be fairly normative.

Thus, it would appear that the more sexual rejection is acceptable to the perceiver, the more its enactment is justified by the actor's good intentions; while the more it is seen as normal, the more it is explained away by a relatively innocuous, unintentional and unstable cause. In light of this pattern of results, it is interesting to note that in a recent study which attempted to empirically scale the attributions made to explain negative interpersonal behavior, these three dimensions (i.e., positive versus negative attitude toward partner, intentional versus unintentional, and actor's traits versus circumstances or states) were found to be the primary ones underlying the causal attributions (Passer, Kelley, & Michela, 1978). Thus, the findings of this study not only offer further support for these dimensions underlying perceived causes of negative interpersonal behavior, but they suggest how they are used

to maintain self-esteem as well.

Perspective Differences

A number of perspective differences were also found for motivational attributions used to explain limit-setting role enactment. In particular, attributions of worry and fatigue were influenced by both direct and moderator perspective effects. First, these attributions were made more by women than by men, in general. This finding is interesting when considering that these attributions were also made more with regard to the women's rejection behavior than for the men's. Together, these relationships imply that the women tended to attribute their own rejection behavior to worry and fatigue more than the men's rejection behavior and more than the men attributed either partner's rejection behavior, regardless of their general pattern of limit-setting role enactment. An examination of the means for these groups supports this pattern. Second, while men with higher levels of limit-setting role enactment tended to attribute their rejection behavior more to worry and fatigue, their partners tended to attribute the men's behavior less to worry and fatigue. Together, these findings concerning attributions of worry and fatigue point to an interesting interpretation process. In general, they suggest that individuals tend to explain their rejection of their partner's sexual advances more to worry and fatigue than their partners do. This actor-observer difference appears to exist independent

of the woman's role enactment, while it seems to increase as a function of the man's greater role enactment. Thus, it would appear that the partner rejecting sexual advances tends to make particular use of this rather innocuous unintentional explanation more than the rejected partner. Therefore, while individuals tend to explain their rejection of their partner's sexual advances to worry and fatigue, especially if they often decline or believe it is normative, their partners tend not to accept this justification and attribute the rejection more to other factors.

Attributional conflicts were also found to develop involving the attribution of benefitting the relationship. Specifically, the more women believed that limit-setting role enactment was normatively expected of them, the more they tended to attribute their rejection of their partner's sexual advances to an attempt to benefit the relationship, such as to feel close to their partner on an emotional rather than a sexual level. In contrast, the extent to which their partners believed that this role was normatively expected of women, the less they tended to attribute the women's rejection behavior to this motivation. If, as assumed earlier, this attribution reflects the actor's good intentions, this finding indicates that women tend to use this more highly valued explanation for their limit-setting role enactment to the extent that they believe their behavior is normative. Their partners, however, do not appear to accept this explanation for normative behavior and tend to attribute it to other, less valued motives.

Together, these perspective differences suggest that a self-esteem maintenance process exists such that individuals in a relationship tend to explain away their own negative behavior by attributing it to a relatively innocuous, unintentional and transient factor or to justify the action by pointing to their good intentions. Alternatively, these perspective differences could reflect a greater blaming attitude by the rejected partner. In fact, in such intimate interactions, both processes could be operating simultaneously. In any case, this defensive and/or blaming mechanism appears to involve rather subtle attributional processes since it generally consists of differential use of normative and target-based expectancies in the formation of attributions. Thus, motivational factors appear to produce attributional conflicts between partners even if they have identical sexual values and beliefs. In fact, as seen above, these attributional conflicts would tend to be exacerbated if partners also had differing sexual values and/or beliefs.

A somewhat different attributional conflict was found for the attribution of sexual inadequacy which took the form of a direct actor-observer effect on this negative trait attribution. Specifically, individuals tended to attribute their rejection of their partner's sexual advances more to their own sexual inadequacy than their partners did. Thus, in contrast to the defensive attributions described above, at least some individuals tended to overtly blame themselves for rejecting their partner's sexual advances more than the rejected partners blamed them. From one

perspective, this actor-observer effect appears to represent what Bradley (1978) has termed a "counter-defensive" attributional process. However, as discussed above, in intimate interactions it is not possible to clearly distinguish how much of an attributional conflict such as this is due to one partner's bias as opposed to the other's. Thus, in this case, it is not clear to what extent the individuals rejecting their partners are emphasizing their own responsibility or their partners are de-emphasizing it, possibly protecting their loved one or blaming themselves for making the sexual advances in the first place.

Cognitive and Motivational Factors in Attribution Formation

As presented earlier, attribution theorists have tended in recent years to emphasize cognitive factors in attribution formation to the neglect of motivational processes. The findings of this study, on the other hand, suggest fairly strongly that both cognitive and motivational factors are critically involved in attribution formation. Moreover, they reveal both the complex interplay between the two factors as well as their differential importance under various conditions.

In general, active sexual role enactment conveys relatively positive information to the partners in a relationship concerning their affections, needs, and, at worst, their duties and obligations. In this circumstance, both cognitive and motivational factors appear to influence attributions in fairly systematic ways. First, both normative and target-based

expectancies were found to be directly related to motivational attributions, following rather logical rules. These rules appear to relate the consistency and distinctiveness of the behavioral expectancy to two basic attributional dimensions: stability and internality. In this regard, even partners in intimate relationships appear to function, in part, as rational information processors. Second, the findings suggest that personal values tended to subtly modify target-based expectancies, thereby influencing attributions in a rather systematic way. Thus, motivational concerns appear to systematically bias the more logical cognitive processes, at least when the behavior enacted has implications for the perceiver's sexual and emotional gratification.

Limit-setting sexual role enactment, on the other hand, tends to convey more negative information, including the existence of anger, worry, and sexual inadequacy. Given the greater potential for injury to self-esteem, motivational factors appear to become both more important and more complex in this type of attribution formation. First, all attributional ratings tended to be lower when interpreting the enactment of this role. Second, instead of modifying expectancies, values tended to directly influence the evaluative quality and intentionality of the motivational attributions. Third, individuals rejecting their partner's sexual advances tended to make defensive attributions, while their partners tended to make more negative attributions, though this conflict occurred in relatively subtle ways, as in the differential use of expectancy

information. Fourth, individuals enacting the behavior tended to become counter-defensive, while their partners reduced their blame when making dispositional attributions having more serious implications for self-esteem.

Thus, both values and expectancies appear to be used in fairly complex ways in order to maintain self-esteem when undesirable behaviors are enacted in intimate relationships. In other words, the undesirable behavior appears to trigger more motivated self-esteem maintenance attributional processes which tend to preempt more logical cognitive interpretation processes. In general, then, this analysis implies that while both cognitive and motivational factors play a significant role in attribution formation when personally relevant behaviors are enacted, their relative importance is determined by the nature of the behavior's implications for the perceiver's self-esteem.

In fact, it is interesting to note that in this discussion of the results, all attributional conflicts between partners have been accounted for by motivational factors overriding cognitive processes. Thus, at least within intimate interactions, partners do not appear to have sufficiently different access to either normative or target-based expectancy information for cognitively based attributional conflicts to develop. On the other hand, underlying value conflicts and self-esteem maintenance mechanisms appear to produce significant attributional conflicts and can even result in different estimates of behavioral enactment. These conflicts,

then, may play a significant role in producing discord in relationships, as will be seen below.

Battle of the Sexes

The findings of this study and their ramifications, as discussed above, reveal some of the complexity of the influence of psychosocial factors such as normative beliefs, personal values, and sexual roles on sexual interaction and interpretation processes. Given their complexity, it is difficult to summarize them concisely. Nevertheless, it might be both useful and interesting to step back for a moment and to reflect upon some of the implications these findings appear to have for the infamous struggle between the sexes behind those traditionally closed bedroom doors.

In particular, it is striking how locked men appear to be into the active sexual role by a variety of pressures including their beliefs about societal expectancies, their partner's desires, and possibly greater sexual drives, despite their own preferences to enact a relatively more passive role. Similarly, the societal prohibition against women being active and initiating sex and its impact on sexual beliefs appear to lock women into the passive and limit-setting sexual role, though their values appear to be more consistent with this position. Thus, traditional sexual roles appear to be rather resilient and continue to be enacted through a variety of psychosocial and possibly biological pressures.

Unfortunately, this traditional role differentiation seems likely to produce marked discord in sexual interactions. Most clearly, men appear to feel pressured by both societal expectancies and their partner's desires for them to perform sexually. Furthermore, given their partner's generally passive sexual role, the men are likely to be disgruntled by what they interpret to be the typical motives behind their partner's sexual involvement, namely duty, pressure, and mood shifts as well as their partner's motives for often rejecting their sexual advances, such as anger at them. In fact, because of their frequent sexual advances as well as their partner's limited initiative, neither of them are likely to be seen as particularly motivated by love and affection for each other, at least in the bedroom.

As a result, men appear to be continually wanting their partners to be more active and initiating and less rejecting in their sexual interactions. However, because of this frustrated desire, they tend to overemphasize both how important transient factors, such as duty and pressure, are in motivating sexual advances and how often sexual advances are rejected. As a consequence of this perceptual and attributional bias, their frustration and dissatisfaction are likely to be amplified. In fact, there is evidence to suggest that, at least in young unmarried couples, men tend to be more dissatisfied and sexually dysfunctional to the extent that they perceive each of them as motivated by duty and pressure and not by sexual need (Butterfield & Crain, 1978). Thus, it

seems fairly clear that traditional sexual role enactment is likely to lead to considerable dissatisfaction and even sexual dysfunction in men.

The issues for women appear to be more subtle and complex. On the one hand, women tend to accept normative expectancies and to prefer more traditional sexual role differentiation in which their partners enact the more active role. On the other hand, when their partners do, in fact, take on this more active role, they tend to see them as motivated by sexual need and not particularly by a desire to express love and affection. Furthermore, this role differentiation tends to put the women into the difficult position of respondent in which there are demands on them to generally accept their partner's sexual advances, regardless of their interest at the time, or be seen (and particularly see themselves) as motivated by sexual inadequacy. These problems appear to be amplified by the women's general tendency to prefer less frequent sexual relations and, as a result, their tendency to emphasize stable attributions, such as their partner's sexual needs.

Therefore, while women generally prefer to have a more active sexual partner, this tends to lead to a situation in which they feel their partner is primarily motivated to gratify sexual urges which they feel obligated to satisfy. Neither of them tend to be perceived as particularly expressing love and affection in sexual interactions. Furthermore, given their passive role position, women tend not to see themselves as motivated by sexual needs, thereby minimizing their own attempts to

gratify themselves sexually. In fact, there is also evidence to suggest that women tend to be more dissatisfied and sexually dysfunctional to the extent that they see themselves as motivated by duty to their partner and not particularly by love and affection (Butterfield & Crain, 1978). Thus, it would appear that the influence of basic psychosocial attributional processes is likely to produce considerable dissatisfaction and even sexual dysfunction in both partners in traditional sexual relationships.

Furthermore, a variety of attributional conflicts due to motivational factors in interpretative processes are likely to exacerbate the battles between the sexes. In particular, differences in sexual values between partners appears to produce more stereotyped attributions of the other's sexual behaviors than of one's own. As a result, men tend to see their partners as more motivated by duty when making sexual advances than their partners see themselves. Similarly, women tend to see their partners as more motivated by sexual need than their partners see themselves. In other words, while the women see themselves as having sexual needs and the men see themselves as not simply motivated by lust, their partners do not tend to accept this diversity of motivations in the other. In addition, self-esteem maintenance mechanisms appear to produce attributional conflicts with regard to sexual rejection. For instance, while the partner rejecting the other's sexual advances tends to attribute his/her behavior to worry or fatigue, the rejected partner tends not to accept this innocuous explanation and rather to attribute it

more to other factors, such as the partner's anger at them. These and other conflicts due to motivational factors in attribution formation are likely to amplify many of the bedroom battles between men and women.

In this context, it is interesting to examine the implications of this analysis of traditional sexual roles for the sex-linked stereotypes about sex and intimacy. Anecdotically, men are said to link sex and intimacy so that when they want affection they simply seek sexual gratification. Women, on the other hand, are said to have difficulty integrating sex and intimacy so that when they want intimacy, they avoid sexual interactions (Firestone, 1970). The findings from this study offer some support as well as an explanation for this sex difference. Since men tend to be stereotypically perceived as motivated by sexual need, particularly by their partners, and not as much by love and affection when enacting a traditional sexual role, it is likely that women do not tend to see sexual interactions as a satisfying source of love and intimacy. When women are sexually active, on the other hand, they tend to be seen as motivated by both sexual need as well as love and affection for their partner. Therefore, men are likely to feel that they can fulfill both sexual and emotional needs in their sexual interactions. If this reasoning is correct, it would help to explain why men tend to be so eager for bed, while women tend to show such virtuous restraint and to strive for more specifically emotional interactions, thereby helping to perpetuate traditional beliefs, roles, and attributions. Thus, this analysis implies an interesting twist

to this sex difference in concerns about sex and intimacy, suggesting that it is not intrinsic to men and women, but rather a function of basic attributional processes in traditional sexual roles.

Together, these findings and implications suggest that traditional sexual role differentiation tends to lead to interpersonal discord and dissatisfaction. In particular, neither partner ends up feeling especially loved or loving in the bedroom. In addition, much of the sexual involvement tends to be seen as motivated by external pressures and duties which appear to be primary factors in the development of dissatisfaction and even sexual dysfunction. Furthermore, the general devaluation of sexual rejection appears to produce greater attributions of anger and sexual inadequacy which might be expected to further increase tensions in the relationship. In spite of these problems, this study suggests that the influence of sexual role prescriptions and prohibitions are both powerful and complex, making them extremely difficult to modify. Moreover, as seen throughout this discussion, there appear to be a number of interactional and interpretative processes which tend to maintain traditional sexual beliefs, values, roles, and attributions.

Nevertheless, it might be useful to examine the implications of this analysis for developing more sexually and emotionally satisfying sexual interactions. What happens, for instance, when women believe that it is acceptable to enact a relatively active and initiating sexual role and, therefore, tend to share the responsibility for making sexual advances in

the relationship? Due to this active role enactment, the women would be expected to be seen (and see themselves) as motivated by their own needs for sexual gratification as well as their desire to express love and affection to their partner and not by duty or pressure. Furthermore, by lowering their traditionally high preference for their partner's active role enactment, they would tend to reduce the performance pressures on them. If the men, then, could enact a relatively more passive position, at times, they would more likely be seen (and see themselves) as motivated by love and affection for their partner as well. Moreover, they would probably feel less pressure to be active as well as less guilty when they were. Thus, more equalitarian roles would tend to make both partners feel more loved and loving in their sexual interactions. In addition, they would both see themselves as interested in personal sexual gratification, thereby minimizing the potential guilt on the other for exploitation as well as maximizing the possibility of greater sexual satisfaction for both partners.

Furthermore, it would appear to be functional if partners could also accept the difficulty of change and therefore the likelihood that at least some degree of sexual role differentiation will be maintained for some time. In particular, if men could lower their preference for greater active role enactment in their partner, not only would it reduce undesirable pressures on them, but it is likely to also decrease the biasing influence of their frustrations on attributions. As a result, the

men would be expected to attribute their partner's sexual advances more to need and the expression of love and less to duty, obviously a desirable outcome.

Thus, more sexually and emotionally satisfying sexual interactions would be expected if both partners made an effort to enact more equalitarian sexual roles, but also accepted the potential limitations they each might have in adopting a more flexible role. In addition, it would appear to be beneficial if partners could learn to respect and even to value each other's right to reject sexual advances at times. This change would be expected both to increase valued attributions, such as a desire for alternative shared activities, and to reduce the need for self-esteem maintenance processes such as defensive, counter-defensive, and blaming attributions.

Finally, increased communication between partners in this traditionally secretive realm might help to reduce attributional conflicts between partners. In particular, partners may be able to reduce their overly stereotyped attributions of each other's (and their own) motivations and to realize that they are each motivated by a variety of factors. However, some degree of stereotyping is likely to continue due to the influence of normative beliefs and possibly of actual biological differences. Thus, men may continue to be seen (and see themselves) as motivated more by sexual needs, while women are likely to be seen (and see themselves) as motivated more by situational feelings and moods.

Nevertheless, an acknowledgement of these differences should not, in and of itself, produce any significant problems.

The more general idea that the enactment of traditional or stereotyped sex roles are maladaptive has been raised by several authors with regard to individuals (Bem, 1974, 1975), certain social encounters (Ickes & Barnes, 1978), and couples (Safilios-Rothschild, 1977; Wills, Weiss, & Paterson, 1974). The proposed model of sexual roles and attributions, together with the findings from this study, offer support for this general notion and point to several important psychosocial mechanisms which appear to maintain these rigid roles even in intimate relationships and to generate discord in them, including performance pressures, stereotyped attributions, value and attributional conflicts, and self-esteem maintenance distortions in attributional processes. Nevertheless, more research is clearly needed to further elucidate how these sexual roles are maintained and modified, how motivational attributions are formed, and how these roles and attributions relate to dissatisfaction and dysfunction.

Finally, many of the therapeutic strategies of the new behavioral sex therapies (e.g., Kaplan, 1974; Masters & Johnson, 1970) appear to operate in ways which are consistent with the recommendations emerging out of this analysis. In particular, the basic beliefs and values apparently instilled by these therapies seem to focus around the acceptibility and desirability of a mixture of active, passive, and limit-setting roles in

sexual interactions for both partners. For instance, a basic technique frequently used regardless of overt symptomatology, sensate focus, in which responsibility for pleasuring the other is prescribed to alternate between partners, appears to essentially involve the restructuring of traditional sexual roles into more equalitarian ones. Therefore, much of the reported success of these therapies may, in fact, be due to their impact on the interactional and especially the interpretative processes presented in this analysis. Thus, the findings from this study of relatively normal couples suggests that many of the couples seeking and benefitting from these new sex therapies may, in fact, be suffering simply from the problems inherent in traditional sexual roles. If future research supports this notion, implementation of some form of brief sexual enrichment program along the line of these therapies and the recommendations implied by this analysis may be very useful for a large number of couples, especially before overt clinical symptomatology develops.

APPENDIX A

SECTIONS FROM THE SEXUAL ROLE INTERACTION INVENTORY (SRII) USED IN THIS STUDY

Duke University
DURHAM
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DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

POSTAL CODE 27706
TELEPHONE [illegible]

SEXUAL ROLE INTERACTION INVENTORY

General Instructions

The following questionnaire has been designed to study the sexual interactions in couples. The length of it has been limited as much as possible. Directions are included and precede each section. Please read them carefully. It is important to this study that you respond accurately to all questions, according to your own life experiences. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please be assured that all responses are completely confidential and that absolutely no record is made of your identity in filling out this questionnaire. In addition, no indication of your responses will be given to your partner at any time.

The questionnaire is designed to be filled out by you without communication with your partner. Therefore, it is critical that you do not discuss any aspects of the questionnaire until after both of you have completed and returned them to the designated person.

Throughout the questionnaire, "partner" refers to your current spouse, if you are married. If not, "partner" refers to your current sexual partner.

Please check the appropriate space:

Male_____

Female_____

DIRECTIONS

On top of each page in this section you will find: ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER. This activity refers to any type of interpersonal contact which you consider to be specifically intended by you to initiate sexual relations with your partner. However, this activity does not have to lead to actual love-making (since that depends on your partner's response).

The items in this section ask you about YOUR behaviors, perceptions, and feelings when YOU make sexual advances to your partner.

Use the 7-point rating scale format indicated on the top of each page in order to determine your responses to the questions on that page. Please be sure to respond to all questions in this section.

ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

1. Of the times sexual advances are made in your relationship, how often, in general, do you make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Of the times sexual advances were made in your relationship in the last four weeks, how often did you make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Of the times sexual advances are made in your relationship, how often would you ideally like to make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Of the times sexual advances are made in the typical marriage relationship, how often do you think most persons of your age and sex typically make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. How often do you communicate to your partner what you specifically want when you make sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. How often do you find fault with yourself when you make sexual advances to your partner:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. How often do you become upset or angry with yourself when you make sexual advances to your partner:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. How often do you feel your partner finds fault with you when you make sexual advances to him/her:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. How often do you feel your partner becomes upset or angry with you when you make sexual advances to him/her:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

22-35. How often do you feel each of the following factors has influenced you to make sexual advances to your partner:

22. A sense of duty or obligation to partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Partner's pressure, expectation, or insistence:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. A desire to please partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. A desire to express love and affection to partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. A desire to satisfy own needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. A desire to please yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. A desire to feel close to partner on emotional level:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Its importance to the relationship:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. Inner feelings and needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. Its importance to self-esteem:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. Feelings of anger or resentment toward partner at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. Feelings of worry or concern about nonsexual matters:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. Feelings of physical discomfort or fatigue:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

35. Feeling in a particularly good mood at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

10. To what degree do you typically find it pleasurable when you make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. To what degree are you satisfied with the way you make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. To what degree are you satisfied with how often you make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your sexual satisfaction:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. To what degree do you consider it difficult for you to make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. To what degree do you think your feelings and needs have to be felt by you before you make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. To what degree do you feel the conditions have to be right before you make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to feel especially good about your partner in order to make sexual advances to him/her:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. To what degree do you consider this activity is typical for a married member of your sex:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. To what degree do you feel you communicate your desires, needs, and concerns to your partner when you make sexual advances to him/her:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. To what degree do you think you would be frustrated by never making sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

36. To what degree do you feel you are expressing loving feelings to your partner when you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

37. To what degree do you feel you are expressing angry feelings to your partner when you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

38. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to be upset with your partner in order to make sexual advances to him/her:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

39. To what degeee do you think you are likely to be angry or upset with your partner when you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

40. To what degree do you think you are likely to be worried or concerned about nonsexual matters when you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. To what degree do you think you are likely to be physically uncomfortable or fatigued when you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to be in an especially good mood in order to make sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

43. To what degree do you feel you become impatient with yourself while making sexual advances to your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

44. To what degree do you feel your partner becomes impatient with you while you are making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

45. To what degeee do you consider this activity a necessity for you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

46. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO PARTNER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All Characteristic			Moderately Characteristic			Extremely Characteristic

47-68. To what degree do you feel each of the following words or phrases describ YOU when YOU are making sexual advances to your partner:

47. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Yielding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Unromantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Considerate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Expresses emotions freely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. High self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Sexually inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Passive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Sexually aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Sexually inhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Sexually desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please check the appropriate space:

Male_____

Female_____

DIRECTIONS

On the top of each page in this section you will find: ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU. This activity refers to any type of interpersonal contact which you consider to be specifically intended by your partner to initiate sexual relations with you. However, this activity does not have to lead to actual love-making (since that depends on your response).

The items in this section ask you about YOUR behaviors, perceptions, and feelings when YOUR PARTNER makes sexual advances to you.

Use the 7-point rating scale format indicated on the top of each page in order to determine your responses to the questions on that page. Please be sure to respond to all questions in this section.

ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

1. Of the times sexual advances are made in your relationship, how often, in general, does your partner make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Of the times sexual advances were made in your relationship in the last four weeks, how often did your partner make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Of the times sexual advances are made in your relationship, how often would you ideally like your partner to make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Of the times sexual advances are made in the typical marriage relationship, how often do you think most persons of your partner's age and sex typically make the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. How often does your partner communicate to you what he/she specifically wants when he/she makes sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. How often does your partner find fault with him/herself when he/she makes sexual advances to you:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. How often does your partner become angry or upset with him/herself when he/she makes sexual advances to you:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. How often do you feel you find fault with your partner when he/she makes sexual advances to you:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. How often do you feel you become upset or angry with your partner when he/she makes sexual advances to you:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

10. To what degree do you typically find it pleasurable when your partner makes sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. To what degree are you satisfied with the way your partner makes sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. To what degree are you satisfied with how often your partner makes sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your sexual satisfaction:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about about your partner:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. To what degree do you consider it difficult for your partner to make sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. To what degree do you think your partner's feelings and needs have to be felt by him/her before he/she makes sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. To what degree do you feel the conditions have to be right before your partner makes sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to feel especially good about you in order to make sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. To what degree do you consider this activity is typical for a married member of your partner's sex:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. To what degree do you feel your partner communicates his/her desires, needs and concerns to you when he/she makes sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. To what degree do you think your partner would be frustrated by never making sexual advances to you:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

22-35. How often do you feel each of the following factors has influenced your partner to make sexual advances to you:

22. A sense of duty or obligation to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Your pressure, expectation, or insistence:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. A desire to please you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. A desire to express love and affection to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. A desire to satisfy his/her needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. A desire to please him/herself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. A desire to feel close to you on emotional level:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Its importance to the relationship:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. Inner feelings and needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. Its importance to his/her self-esteem:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. Feelings of anger or resentment toward you at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. Feelings of worry or concern about nonsexual matters:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. Feelings of physical discomfort or fatigue:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

35. Feeling in a particularly good mood at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

36. To what degree do you feel your partner is expressing loving feelings to you when he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

37. To what degree do you feel your partner is expressing angry feelings to you when he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

38. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to be upset with you in order to make sexual advacces to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

39. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be angry or upset with you when he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

40. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be worried or concerned about nonsexual matters when he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be physically uncomfortab or fatigued when he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to be in an especially good mood in order to make sexual advances to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

43. To what degree do you feel your partner becomes impatient with him/herself while making sexual advances to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

44. To what degree do you feel you become impatient with your partner while he/she is making sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

45. To what degree do you consider this activity a necessity for your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

46. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER MAKING SEXUAL ADVANCES TO YOU

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All Characteristic			Moderately Characteristic			Extremely Characteristic

47-68. To what degree do you feel each of the following words or phrases describe YOUR PARTNER when HE/SHE is making sexual advances to you:

47. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Yielding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Unromantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Considerate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Expresses emotions freely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. High self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Sexually inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Passive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Sexually aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Sexually inhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Sexually desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please check the appropriate space:

Male_____

Female_____

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On top of each page in this section you will find: ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES. This activity refers to any type of interpersonal contact which you consider to be specifically intended by you to reject your partner's suggestion for sexual relations.

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ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

1. Of the times your partner makes sexual advances to you, how often, in general, do you reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Of the times your partner made sexual advances to you in the last four weeks, how often did you reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Of the times your partner makes sexual advances to you, how often would you ideally like to reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Of the times the partner in the typical marriage relationship makes sexual advances, how often do you think most persons of your age and sex typically reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. How often do you communicate to your partner what you specifically want instead of sex when you reject his/her sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. How often do you find fault with yourself when you reject your partner's sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. How often do you become upset or angry with yourself when you reject your partner's sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. How often do you feel your partner finds fault with you when you reject his/her sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. How often do you feel your partner becomes angry or upset with you when you reject his/her sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

10. To what degree do you typically find it pleasurable when you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. To what degree are you satisfied with the way you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. To what degree are you satisfied with how often you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your sexual satisfaction:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. To what degree do you consider it difficult for you to reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. To what degree do you think your feelings and needs have to be felt by you before you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. To what degree do you feel the conditions have to be right before you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to feel especially good about your partner in order to reject his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. To what degree do you think this activity is typical for a married member of your sex:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. To what degree do you feel you communicate your desires, needs, and concerns to your partner when you reject his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. To what degree do you think you would be frustrated by never rejecting your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

22-35. How often do you feel each of the following factors has influenced you to reject your partner's sexual advances:

22. A sense of duty or obligation to partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Partner's pressures, expectation, or insistence:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. A desire to please partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. A desire to express love and affection to partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. A desire to satisfy own needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. A desire to please yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. A desire to feel close to partner on emotional level:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Its importance to the relationship:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. Inner feelings and needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. Its importance to self-esteem:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. Feelings of anger or resentment toward partner at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. Feelings of worry or concern about nonsexual matters:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. Feelings of physical discomfort or fatigue:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

35. Feeling in a particularly good mood at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

36. To what degree do you feel you are expressing loving feelings to your partner when you are rejecting his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

37. To what degree do you feel you are expressing angry feelings to your partner when you are rejecting his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

38. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to be upset with your partner in order to reject his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

39. To what degree do you think you are likely to be angry or upset with your partner when you are rejecting his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

40. To what degree do you think you are likely to be worried or concerned about nonsexual matters when you are rejecting your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. To what degree do you think you are likely to be physically uncomfortable or fatigued when you are rejecting your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. To what degree do you think it is necessary for you to be in an especially good mood in order to reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

43. To what degree do you feel you become impatient with yourself when you reject your partner's sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

44. To what degree do you feel your partner becomes impatient with you when you reject his/her sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

45. To what degree do you consider this activity a necessity for you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

46. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: REJECTING PARTNER'S SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All Characteristic			Moderately Characteristic			Extremely Characteristic

47-68. To what degree do you feel each of the following words or phrases describe YOU when YOU are rejecting your partner's sexual advances:

47. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Yielding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Unromantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Considerate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Expresses emotions freely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. High self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Sexually inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Passive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Sexually aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Sexually inhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Sexually desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please check the appropriate space:

Male_____

Female_____

DIRECTIONS

On top of each page in this section you will find: ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES. This activity refers to any type of interpersonal contact which you consider to be specifically intended by your partner to reject your suggestion for sexual relations.

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ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

1. Of the times you make sexual advances to your partner, how often, in general, does your partner reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Of the times you made sexual advances to your partner in the last four weeks, how often did he/she reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. Of the times you make sexual advances to your partner, how often would you ideally like your partner to reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Of the times one partner in the typical marriage relationship makes sexual advances, how often do you think most persons of your partner's age and sex typically reject the advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. How often does your partner communicate to you what he/she specifically wants instead of sex when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. How often does your partner find fault with him/herself when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. How often does your partner become angry or upset with him/herself when he/sh rejects your sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. How often do you feel you find fault with your partner when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. How often do you feel you become upset or angry with your partner when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All			Moderately			Extremely

10. To what degree do you typically find it pleasurable when your partner rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. To what degree are you satisfied with the way your partner rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. To what degree are you satisfied with how often your partner rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your sexual satisfaction:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about your partner:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. To what degree do you consider it difficult for your partner to reject your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. To what degree do you think your partner's feelings and needs have to be felt by him/her before he/she rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. To what degree do you feel the conditions have to be right before your partner rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to feel especially good about you in order to reject your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. To what degree do you think this activity is typical for a married member of your partner's sex:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. To what degree do you feel your partner communicates his/her desires, needs, and concerns to you when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. To what degree do you think your partner would be frustrated by never rejecting your sexual advances:
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

22-35. How often do you feel each of the following factors has influenced your partner to reject your sexual advances:

22. A sense of duty or obligation to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Your pressures, expectations, or insistence:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. A desire to please you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. A desire to express love and affection to you:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. A desire to satisfy his/her needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. A desire to please him/herself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. A desire to feel close to you on emotional level:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Its importance to the relationship:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. Inner feelings and needs:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. Its importance to his/her self-esteem:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. Feelings of anger or resentment toward you at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. Feelings of worry or concern about nonsexual matters:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. Feelings of physical discomfort or fatigue:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

35. Feeling in a particularly good mood at the time:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Always

36. To what degree do you feel your partner is expressing loving feelings to you when he/she is rejecting your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

37. To what degree do you feel your partner is expressing angry feelings to you when he/she is rejecting your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

38. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to be upset with you in order to reject your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

39. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be angry or upset with you when he/she is rejecting your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

40. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be worried or concerned about nonsexual matters when he/she is rejecting your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

41. To what degree do you think your partner is likely to be physically uncomfortable or fatigued when he/she is rejecting your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

42. To what degree do you think it is necessary for your partner to be in an especially good mood in order to reject your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

43. To what degree do you feel your partner becomes impatient with him/herself when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

44. To what degree do you feel you become impatient with your partner when he/she rejects your sexual advances:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

45. To what degree do you consider this activity a necessity for your partner:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

46. To what degree do you consider this activity important to your feelings about yourself:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

ACTIVITY: PARTNER REJECTING YOUR SEXUAL ADVANCES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at All Characteristic			Moderately Characteristic			Extremely Characteristic

47-68. To what degree do you feel each of the following words or phrases describe YOUR PARTNER when HE/SHE is rejecting your sexual advances:

47. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Passionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Yielding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Unromantic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Sexy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Affectionate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Willing to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Considerate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Expresses emotions freely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. High self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Sexually inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Passive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Sexually aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Sexually inhibited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Sexually desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3 or less times per month	1 time per week	2 times per week	3 times per week	4 times per week	5 times per week	6 or more times per week

1-4. Please answer the following questions regarding the frequency of SEXUAL RELATIONS with partner:

1. Currently occurs, in typical month:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I would like it to occur:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. My partner would like it to occur:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Occurs in typical American married couple:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never or Almost Never			About Half-the-Time			Always or Almost Alwa

5-10. How often have you or your partner experienced each of the following difficulties in your current sexual relationship (rate for BOTH yourself and your partner):

MALE: 5. Inability to get an erection:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Reaching climax too quickly to satisfy female:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Inability to climax (ejaculate):
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

FEMALE: 8. Inability to relax vagina for penetration:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Inability to become sexually aroused and lubricated:
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Inability to have a climax (orgasm):
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please answer the following background questions:

1. Age _____ 2. Sex: Male_____ Female_____

3. Marital status: Single_____ Married_____ Separated/Divorced_____

4. If married: Years married to partner _____
   If single: Years living with current partner _____

5. Number of children _____

6. Have you been previously married? Yes_____ No_____

7. Are you presently employed outside the home?
   No_____ Yes (Part-time)_____ Yes (Full-time)_____

8. Are you presently enrolled as a student?
   No_____ Yes (Part-time)_____ Yes (Full-time)_____

9. If you are a student, what level are you?
   Undergraduate_____ Graduate_____

10. What is your field of study? _____

11. Circle the highest level of schooling you have completed:

High School 1 2 3 4	Post High School Training (non-college)
College 1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
Graduate 1 2 3 4	

12. What is your personal income per year?

_____ under $3000
_____ $3000-6000
_____ $6000-10000
_____ $10000-15000
_____ above $15000

13. Where were you born? _____

14. If not born in U.S., how long have you lived here? _____

COMMENTS (continue on back, if necessary)

APPENDIX B

ITEMS FROM THE SRII AND THEIR INTERCORRELATIONS FOR VARIABLES USED IN THIS STUDY

Sexual Initiation Variables	Items and Intercorrelations				
Perceived role enactment	Items	1			
	2	.87			
Personal preference	Item	3			
Normative expectancy	Item	4			
Inner need	Items	21	26	27	30
	26	.36			
	27	.29	.79		
	30	.32	.60	.55	
	45	.50	.32	.32	.35
Expression of love	Items	25	28	36	55	57
	28	.62				
	36	.56	.53			
	55	.50	.45	.54		
	57	.40	.35	.40	.50	
	58	.36	.35	.45	.55	.45
For relationship	Items	24	29			
	29	.38				
	31	.31	.52			
Duty/pressure	Items	22				
	23	.68				
Positive feelings	Items	16	17	18	35	
	17	.49				
	18	.45	.56			
	35	.21	.28	.34		
	42	.26	.53	.54	.50	

Sexual Rejection Variables	Items and Intercorrelations					
Perceived role enactment	Items	1				
	2	.82				
Personal preference	Item	3				
Normative expectancy	Item	4				
Inner need	Items	26	27			
	27	.70				
	30	.62	.53			
For relationship	Items	22	23	24	25	28	29
	23	.47					
	24	.58	.36				
	25	.48	.34	.80			
	28	.42	.38	.57	.65		
	29	.36	.34	.51	.54	.60	
	31	.36	.41	.30	.35	.35	.50
Worry/fatigue	Items	33	34	40			
	34	.56					
	40	.69	.37				
	41	.36	.67	.47			
Anger	Items	32	37	38			
	37	.70					
	38	.55	.68				
	39	.64	.74	.84			
Inadequacy	Items	59	61	63	65		
	61	.39					
	63	.38	.52				
	65	.34	.36	.39			
	67	.32	.51	.44	.38		

APPENDIX C

RATER INSTRUCTIONS FOR ATTRIBUTION VARIABLES

Instructions

I. Please rate the following causes for a typical married person's sexual advances toward his/her spouse on each of the three scales:

1. The person's own sexual needs.

2. To please and impress his/her spouse or to benefit their relationship, in general.

3. The person's feelings of love and affection for his/her spouse.

4. An obligation to his/her spouse or the spouse's pressure and insistence.

5. Particularly good feelings about him/herself and/or his spouse.

II. Please rate the following causes for a typical married person's rejection of his/her spouse's sexual advances on each of the three scales:

1. The person's own needs.

2. To feel close to his/her spouse on an emotional level or to benefit their relationship, in general.

3. The person's physical discomfort, fatigue, or worry about nonsexual matters.

4. The person's anger or resentment toward his/her partner.

5. The person's sexual inadequacy and inhibition.

	SCALES		
A.	1 Stable	2 Neutral	3 Unstable
B.	1 Intrapersonal	2 Neutral	3 Interpersonal
C.	1 Positive	2 Neutral	3 Negative

Description of the Scales

A. (1) Stable: the cause has a relatively permanent existence (e.g., ability is a rather stable cause of success in school)

(3) Unstable: the cause has a relatively temporary existence (e.g., luck is a rather unstable cause of success in school)

B. (1) Intrapersonal: the cause is primarily something about the individual
(e.g., shyness is a rather intrapersonal cause for a person to avoid someone else)

(3) Interpersonal: the cause is primarily something about the individual's partner and/or their relationship
(e.g., dislike for someone is a rather interpersonal cause for a person to avoid him/her)

C. (1) Positive: the cause is primarily a positive reason for engaging in the activity (from your personal point of view)
(e.g., altruism could be considered a positive reason for helping someone)

(3) Negative: the cause is primarily a negative reason for engaging in the activity (from your personal point of view)
(e.g., one-up-manship could be considered a negative reason for helping someone)

For all scales, the Neutral (2) rating is to be used as the midpoint on the scale, or if the dimension is not particularly relevant to that cause for the behavior.

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